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Identity Formation and Collaborative Inquiry in The Zone of Proximal Development:
Eighth Grade ESL Students Doing Research—A Teacher Research Study

A DISSERTATION

submitted by

Carol Irene Bearse

In partial fulfillment of the requirements
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ABSTRACT

This study is an ethnographic investigation of a Grade Eight ESL IV class conducting research with topics of their own choosing from October, 2001 through May, 2002. This investigation is conceived as a qualitative teacher-research study: an ethnographic examination of collaborative inquiry in an ESL classroom setting where the majority of the students are Brazilian. Participant observation, field notes, audiotaped interviews, questionnaires, and written reflections were the data collection procedures used in this study.

The questions that frame this study are: What does the writing process look like in the context of this research class? What happens to students vis-à-vis research, literacy, and collaboration, when they are allowed to choose research topics from any area of interest and allowed to pursue these topics over an academic year. What does this class look like vis-à-vis the student's research, literacy, and collaboration? How does ESL writing develop through the research/writing process?

Further, my overarching interest is students' perceptions of themselves as readers, writers, and researchers and how adolescent students' identities are affected through the process of research/writing.

The findings of this study reflected the three generative themes of learning English, becoming writers and researchers, and helping each other. These themes crossed over all stages of the research/writing process. A synthesis of the data revealed the following major findings: 1) Students' identities developed through each stage of the research process as they became more confident of their abilities as readers and writers; 2) Most topics were chosen because of a cultural connection; 3) Language was found to be an important mediational tool that promoted both individual and social development; 4) Authentic literacy events served to mediate the development of English as a Second Language; 5) Students' written reflections were found to enhance students' metacognition and created with the support of their teachers and peers optimal zones of proximal development for learning English through the research process; 6) Challenging work was found to be a key element in students' developing confidence as researchers and writers; 7) Students mentioned that teacher feedback and individual conferencing helped them to succeed and become more accomplished writers in English; 8) Students' biliteracy provided the foundation for students' learning in English; 9) Students' engagement in collaborative inquiry was linked to both their improvement in English and a greater ability to work together to solve a problem; 10) Adolescent ESL writing was found to develop in three distinct areas: increase of academic vocabulary, increase in the length of writing as demonstrated by the use of compound complex sentences and the use of transition words to connect paragraphs.

In summary, the findings suggest that by choosing topics of their own choice, these ESL students were reading and writing for real meaning and purpose which led to their rewriting their identities as learners, readers, writers, and researchers.

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IN MEMORIAM

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my Greek maternal grandparents,

Irene Mary Stavropoulos Kyrias

And

George Thomas Kyrias

Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION

Personal Background

Literacy has always been important in my teaching. For ten years, I was a fourth and fifth grade classroom teacher. My elementary classrooms were infused with reading and writing, and students engaged in literacy across all disciplines. As they researched and worked on projects together, these fourth and fifth graders actively constructed meaning from text as they read. Concurrently, I found that their writing provided me with the best opportunity to see students' lives through their eyes. Writing also served as springboards to encourage children to read to explore authors' literary styles.

Because of the excitement generated in my classrooms about writing, and because I believe that teachers must become writers in order to teach writing, I decided to leave teaching at the elementary level to study writing in-depth. Through the Radcliffe Seminars, I studied poetry writing and left the classroom for a few years to begin my own consulting business as a Poet-in-the-Schools. For eight years in this role, I had the opportunity to teach all grades, K-12. During this time, infusing multicultural voices into diverse curricula became my passion. Some of the programs I developed included: "The Harlem Renaissance: Its Poets and Artists," "Chinese Poetry and Art," "The Poetry of the Netsilik Eskimo," "The Poetry and Music of Africa," "Poems in Two Voices in the Social Studies Curriculum," and "The Poetry and Art of Japan." When I brought these voices into classrooms, I saw faces light up with recognition.

At the same time that I was a Poet-in-the-Schools, I worked as a language arts consultant for the Groton-Dunstable Public Schools. In this capacity I worked with

teachers to implement a whole language reading program. By whole language I mean literacy through authentic literacy events rather than isolated skills. I modeled lessons for teachers, held parent meetings, and worked with a committee for the purpose of ordering literature for thematic units. I also led after school professional development workshops on the topics of children's literature and writing. As I worked with these students and teachers, I began to read widely in professional journals and began thinking about what were new literacy questions for me. I wanted to find out more about the sorts of literacy that comes out of children's experiences with the world around them. Another question that fascinated me was how students' reading of literature affects the writing of particular genres such as fairy tales or mystery.

Thus, in 1989 I began attending the Lesley College Summer Literacy Institutes, and also pursued my certificate as a Consulting Teacher of Reading. Even though I loved literature and writing and considered myself a project-oriented teacher, I wondered how I could improve my teaching. How could I make literacy more student-centered? By this I mean, how could I implement constructivist learning in my classes, one of the topics present in Chapter Two. How could I reconcile theory with practice? These questions led me on a quest for books and articles by researchers who wrote about reading and writing workshops that centered on children's literature and choice of topics in both reading and writing. I began reading and being influenced by such authors as Nancie Atwell, Lucy Calkins, Jane Hansen, Donald Graves, and Donald Murray. Louise Rosenblatt's theory of reading response and Lisa Delpit's research on the need for explicit instruction for minority students began, too, to guide my thinking. I began to think that the personal connection students made with texts could be optimally enlivened

through their own meaning-making activities of reading and writing. Further, Lisa Delpit made me aware that minority students needed to be empowered with the “codes of power” that would propel their success in literacy through the uses of secondary discourses (all of these topics are explicated further in Chapter Two).

In the Lesley program, I learned how to conduct reading research, and found that I loved working in the library doing further reading to synthesize the many aspects of reading/writing studies that I’d already started to use in my practice. The questions that I wanted to continue to research concerned the relationship between reading and writing, particularly I wanted to know more about how reading influences writing. My first published article for *The Reading Teacher* was a result of my initial research.

This article describes how third graders’ readings of fairy tales affected their writing of fairy tales. This was my first attempt at synthesizing research, collecting data (in this case, samples of student writing), and drawing conclusions from the data. I didn’t realize at the time that what I was doing was qualitative research and teacher-research. I called what I was doing “action research” because I found that by writing I was able to clarify my own thinking about teaching and apply these new ideas to my teaching practice.

Later, I became the Director/Teacher of an inner-city Magnet School writing program at the Kane School (Grades 3-8) in Lawrence, MA, where the student population was 85% Latino. Here I had the unique opportunity to design the Literacy curriculum for Grades 3-8, ordered books and materials, and developed a writing assessment program based on portfolio assessment that showed a student’s growth over three years, in Grades 3- 5, and then through Grades 6-8. The portfolios were designed around collecting

student writing that reflected specific genres in each grade with benchmarks for success. In addition, my students at the Kane School motivated me to learn Spanish in order to identify with their language and culture. The question that now dominated my thinking was the connection between native language learning and the acquisition of a second language.

As we shared family stories, my students helped me to reclaim my own Greek urban roots. I shared with them my own writing about growing up with my *yaya*, my grandmother, and my mother, in a Greek tenement neighborhood and my pride in knowing two languages as a child. I became aware of the importance of language in the formation of identity, because I realized how growing up bilingual had inextricably become entwined with my identity.

I also remembered growing up in Boston in the fifties. When I entered school in Kindergarten, I was completely bilingual, but my teachers insisted that I only speak English ostensibly making me feel that part of my identity was devalued. I wanted to become like the other monolingual children in my class. A part of me could always be hidden from the world because I had bright red hair and an English surname. However, I identified with my Greek roots because during my formative years from birth to three years old, I lived with my Greek grandparents and my mother while my English father was in the Navy. My “Greekness” was further embedded in me by being brought up in the Greek Orthodox Church where I sang in the church choir and taught in the Sunday school, thus maintaining my native language. Through understanding my adolescent ESL students’ identity formation as bilingual readers and writers, I have become more aware of who I am as a Greek American by remembering who I was as a bilingual child.

In Lawrence, I learned that literacy has the capacity to empower inner-city students. By empower I mean to feel confident about the strength of their own voices to speak out and write about their own life experiences. They began to write about the inequities of racism that they faced every day. They became inspired by such diverse authors as Maya Angelou, Langston Hughes, Sandra Cisneros, Gary Soto, and Nikki Giovanni. These authors' lives and struggles reflected their own struggles with being a minority.

My experience there awakened me to the inequities of class and culture. While there I read and was influenced by Mike Rose's book, *Lives on the Boundary*, because he views teaching in terms of reaching across cultures and class: "Culture and class erect boundaries that hinder our vision—blind us to the logic of error and the ever present stirring of language—and encourage the designation of otherness, difference, and deficiency"(Rose, 1989, p. 205). In order to understand literacy, I came to believe that we need to understand its sociocultural context.

When my principal left Lawrence in 1994 to begin a new middle school in a diverse suburban community west of Boston, he invited me to be the Literacy Specialist in his school and to set up a new literacy program, and I accepted my present position as a Literacy Specialist where I am again working with a very diverse population (Brazilian, Latino, Asian, African American).

Further, within the Bilingual Department I saw the need for an additional Advanced/Transitional ESL class (ESL V), which I created and taught (See Appendix A for an explanation of the ESL Levels). ESL students were struggling and failing to learn in the mainstream classes. These students needed, I believed, the additional support of an

intensive English class while developing their writing skills in the mainstream content areas. Within this context, I was able to observe closely the development of biliteracy and the difficulties these children found in learning academic language. I struggled daily with how to best improve my students' literacy skills and enhance their cultural identities. I also wanted to have a deeper knowledge of Spanish, so I could relive what it was to learn a second language, this time, as an adult.

Thus, in the summer of 1995, I traveled to Costa Rica to study Spanish intensively and to live with a local family. I remember how tired I was by the end of the day, as I struggled to speak Spanish all day, as well as to learn to conjugate verbs and acquire vocabulary by night. When I began to dream in Spanish and to write directly in Spanish, I knew I had reached a breakthrough in my language development. Through my own struggles to learn, I also appreciated more fully how difficult school was for my ESL students, and wanted to bring this new knowledge and sensitivity into my classroom. Therefore, in learning Spanish as an adult, I became acutely aware of the many aspects of language acquisition that I had just recently studied and witnessed myself. These insights helped me to understand the processing and developmental needs of my students.

As a recipient of a Fulbright Scholarship to Brazil in the summer of 2000, I had the opportunity to live and work in Fortaleza, Brazil for six weeks. During this time I worked side by side with my exchange partner in a public secondary school where I was able to observe second language learners at work on a daily basis. In addition, I learned Portuguese, this time with the construct of Spanish in mind. With the perspective of learning a second language from a comparative approach, I began to understand how the knowledge of the structure of one language enabled me to learn the structures of another.

With this new knowledge of language acquisition, I wanted to incorporate more authentic literacy projects in my ESL V classroom. By authentic I mean research based experiences where students explored questions of their own choosing in both literature and their community experiences. I believed that these kinds of projects would accelerate the learning of academic English. My students were all mainstreamed except for this one language support class. They were also ninety percent Brazilian. Because of my experiences in Brazil, I knew that talk and cooperative learning were the most effective strategies to use with my students. In Brazil, I observed classrooms of fifty-four adolescents where friendships and a relaxed learning atmosphere were highly valued. Through these friendships and through talk, students worked together to accomplish a common task. With this class, then, I decided to incorporate more cooperative learning strategies and found that collaborative inquiry worked best with these students. Because of their need to talk and to cooperate in learning, they enjoyed working together and produced individual research projects with the help of their peers. Students, in Latino/Brazilian cultures are more successful in learning when their “interdependent self” is valued (this topic, too, is further developed in Chapter Two). I also found that developing structured writing frames and individual conferencing helped my students to succeed.

Because of this experience with my ESL V class, I wanted to examine more closely the process of ESL students’ acquiring academic English through research and collaborative inquiry projects. I was interested in the role of language and culture in the identity formation of these adolescents. In my present role as the Bilingual Curriculum Specialist in our school, I am able to see students at different ESL levels who come from

a majority Latino/Brazilian population. This opportunity has given me first hand experience with observing students acquire a second language, in particular, those students who have been partially mainstreamed. This interest has led me to my present study.

Framework of Study

This study is a qualitative/ ethnographic investigation of a Grade Eight ESL IV class conducting research with topics of their own choosing from October, 2001 through May, 2002. Ethnographic research seeks to uncover the meanings that individuals make by looking closely at the particular culture of these individuals over a period of time (Fetterman, 1989; Geertz, 1973). In this case, I was interested in examining the culture of this particular ESL class over the period of an academic year. Further, I was interested in students' perceptions of their experiences as second language learners through the various stages of the research/writing process. In the course of this study, these students were asked to describe through interviews and through written reflections during each stage of the research process their experiences as readers and writers.

This investigation, then, is conceived as a qualitative teacher-research study: an ethnographic examination of collaborative inquiry in an ESL classroom setting where the majority of the students are Brazilian. This study focuses on process, the process by which students conduct research of topics they choose. I wanted to better understand the processes ESL students go through and hopefully master as they become researchers as well as more competent writers. Through this close look at process, I could also determine how adolescent writing develops over time. The students' stories and my own story as a teacher-researcher are the focus of this investigation. Through these stories, I

hope that additional questions and areas of research will be identified so that others, as well as myself, will feel encouraged to engage in further studies of bilingual students' literacy processes.

This dissertation, therefore, aims at describing and analyzing my students' development as researchers and writers. The questions that frame this study are:

- What does the writing process look like in the context of this research class?
- What happens to students vis-à-vis research, literacy, and collaboration, when they are allowed to choose research topics from any area of interest and allowed to pursue these topics over an academic year?
- What does this class look like vis-à-vis the students' research, literacy, and collaboration?
- How does adolescent ESL writing develop through the research/writing process over the period of one academic year?

My overarching interest is students' perceptions of themselves as readers, writers, and researchers and how ESL adolescent identities are affected through the process of research/writing. But this focus does not preclude my attempt to link this learning process to positive, concrete literacy outcomes, on which I also aim to shed light.

Definitions

Essential to understanding my research questions is understanding the key definitions that guide this study. These definitions will be further explicated in Chapter Two. I believe that the following concepts are inextricably bound to the processes of second language acquisition among adolescent ESL students.

Identity formation

In the context of this study identity formation is defined as

...a process of simultaneous reflection and observation, a process taking place on all levels of mental functioning, by which the individual judges himself in the light of what he perceives to be the way in which others judge him in comparison to themselves and to a typology significant to them. (Erickson, 1968, p. 22)

Zone of proximal development

Vygotsky defines the zone of proximal development in the following manner:

It is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers....The actual developmental level characterizes mental development retrospectively, while the zone of proximal development characterizes mental development prospectively.
(1978, p. 86)

Collaborative inquiry

In the context of this study collaborative inquiry is the process by which students engage in learning by collaborating, or cooperating with their peers and their teacher within a community engaged in collaborative inquiry. Further, this dissertation embraces Wells' view (2000) that suggests that within the zone of proximal development all learning is in some way collaborative. Further, because the whole person is involved in joint activity, there is an identity-forming effect to this collaborative assistance.

Authentic literacy

Authentic literacy events are defined by the Goodmans (1990) as events that have personal and significant meaning for the language user, and within these events, there are transactions between the reader and the text in which the reader is continuously solving new problems and building and extending psycholinguistic strategies.

Academic English

Within the context of this study, academic English is defined as English that is part of a secondary discourse as defined by Gee (1989). Secondary discourses are part of the discourses learned in school, work places, or government offices, for example. These secondary discourses imply knowledge of the dominant culture. Literacy, in this view, is defined as a dominant literacy that is in control of a secondary use of language.

Rationale for Research

The areas of bilingual and English as a second language research at the secondary level are among the most unexamined and overlooked areas of education in the United States (Faltis, 1999). This is particularly significant because even though there is a scarcity of research at the secondary level, bilingual secondary school students are rapidly increasing in numbers. According to the 1990 U.S. Bureau of the Census, already one in every six middle and high school students spoke a language other than English at home, was a newcomer to this country or both. Altogether, there were 3.4 million fourteen to nineteen year old newcomer and linguistically different youth in 1990 (Waggoner, 1999, p.38).

According to the 1993 U.S. Bureau of the Census, immigrant children entering U.S. schools are older than native children. Of the children aged five to eighteen years old, only thirty-three percent of the foreign-born were five to ten years old, but forty-five percent of native-born children fell into that age range. The same data also indicated that more foreign-born youth than native-born youth fell into the age group between fourteen to nineteen years of age (Rong & Preissle, 1997).

There is little debate about the need to improve the literacy skills of linguistically and culturally diverse student populations. According to the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), writing assessment data continue to reveal findings about the poor writing of this segment of the population, particularly among Latino students. For example, at Grades Eight and Twelve, according to the NAEP, slightly less than fifty percent of the Latino students demonstrated minimal competence, whereas seventy-five percent of White students wrote minimally competent adequate responses (Guitierrez, 1992). Other studies have cited Latinos as constituting seventy percent of the LEP population in the United States (Felix, Waxman, & Page, 2001). Scholars have recently reanalyzed Census Bureau figures, and have determined that Latinos will account for most of the overall population growth between 1982-2020. In fact, it was estimated that in 1982 one in ten children was Latino, while one in four will be Latino in 2020 (Felix, Waxman, & Paige, 2001). From these statistics, one can see the crucial importance of understanding the literacy learning lives and through this, the literacy needs of these students.

Furthermore, while there are countless studies of the writing process of monolingual students of all ages (Graves, 1983; Dyson, 1989; Emig, 1971, among others) and a growing number of studies of learning to write in a second language (Valdes, 2001; Reyes, 1991), most studies of secondary school language writing focuses on measuring the development of writing through the use of dialogue journals (Peyton, 1990; Reyes, 1992; Hudelson, 1988; McLaine, 1986). These researchers have taken a micro-look at the products of writing, not the process of writing itself. Few studies that I'm aware of have examined adolescent literacy through students' choosing their own research topics

(Garcia, 1993; Mercado, 1993; Mercado & Moll, 2000). Even fewer bilingual studies have looked at the process of advanced ESL students conducting their own research in an ESL classroom.

The role of culture may play an even more pivotal role in the development of adolescent writing, because culture plays a key role in the developing identity formation of bilingual adolescents; this is often played out in their writing and their participation in multiple discourses. Valdes (1999) pointed to the continued need to pay attention to what students already bring with them into their classrooms, particularly in terms of their home culture and the understandings they already have developed about written language.

There is a need, then, to look at adolescent second language writing through the lens of a multiplicity of discourses. If writing development can be deduced to be a process of growth in social context, then the cultural, contextual, and individual differences of bilingual students need to be better understood if educational theories and practices are to be relevant to helping second language students become more competent writers (Cumming, 1998).

Influenced by Cumming's synthesis of bilingual writing research, this dissertation seeks to investigate the development of adolescent writing through a look at the research/writing process in a particular social and cultural context, vis-à-vis an advanced ESL class made up of a majority of Brazilians and Latinos. In addition, this dissertation takes a close look at students' talking and reflecting through each stage of the writing process. The stance of this investigation extends Mercado's (1993) and Mercado's and Moll's work (2000) by looking at the writing process through a Vygotskian perspective

while examining the impact of culture and identity on this process. By taking this stance, this dissertation hopes to add to the body of knowledge about adolescent ESL writing.

According to Nevarez-LaTorre (1999), there is also a growing need for teacher-research in bilingual classrooms and for teacher-research in linguistically diverse settings, given the changing population trends in urban settings. She writes:

These trends demand comprehensive and innovative educational approaches that will promote knowledge produced by teachers to facilitate academic success for all students and build the understanding about effective practice in bilingual education settings. The involvement in teacher-research by practitioners who work with linguistically diverse students is one way to respond to the demands brought forth by such changing demands. (p. 456)

Further, bilingual researcher, Jim Cummins, interprets Vygotsky's zone of proximal development to be the interpersonal space where minds meet and new understandings can arise through collaborative interaction and inquiry (1996). This definition points clearly to the affective side of language acquisition and the importance of choice and motivation in developing literacy in a second language. This might mean, in classroom practice, students becoming agents of their own learning by choosing their own topics for research. These ideas are more fully discussed in Chapter Two.

Another view of Vygotsky central to this dissertation is taken by Penuel and Wertsch (1995). They claim that adolescent identity formation has connections to Vygotsky's theory of child development. They assert that although Vygotsky did not use the term "identity" in his writings, he was concerned with individual development because he saw individual mental processes as having their origin in social interaction (p.86). Further, the authors contend that Vygotsky's sociocultural approach involves the assertion that human action is mediated by tools and signs, with language considered as

one of the higher mental functioning tools. I will go into Vygotsky's theories in depth in Chapter Two, the Literature Review. From this perspective, writing can be seen as another of the higher mental functioning tools that mediates human action and reflection. Van Manen has stated that research involves the process of finding one's identity. He writes, "Research is the work of writing, but in writing, the writer...produces more than text. The writer produces himself or herself...Writing is a kind of self-making or forming"(1990, p.126).

Thus, because of the importance of "self-making" during the writing process, at the heart of this investigation are the voices of the ESL students recalling their lived experiences as researchers, readers, and writers. At each stage of the research/writing process they reflect upon what they have learned and how they see themselves not only as researchers, but as second language learners. Their words provide useful information needed to understand the connections among identity, culture, language acquisition, and the literacy processes of these adolescent second language learners.

The subsequent chapters offer the following: Chapter Two reviews the literature that examines the three core themes of this study: identity formation in adolescents, Vygotskian perspectives on literacy research, and second language acquisition theories and practice. Chapter Three describes the qualitative methodology of this study as well as further background about the historical basis of teacher research.

Chapter Four describes and analyzes an eighth grade ESL class doing research over a year, thickly described through the words and reflections of the four case study students as well as through the words of the focus interview informants who give the class its unique variety. This chapter is divided into four parts, corresponding to the four

stages of the research/writing process: Asking Questions, Note taking, Drafting, and Publishing. Also discussed is the development of writing through each stage of the writing process.

Chapter Five presents the study's findings, the implications, and the recommendations. Among these findings are the following: 1) students' identities developed through each stage of the research process as they became more confident of their abilities as readers and writers; 2) most topics were chosen because of a cultural connection; 3) language was found to be an important mediational tool, in the Vygotskian sense, that promoted both individual and social development; 4) authentic literacy events served to mediate the development of English as a Second Language; 5) students' written reflections were found to enhance students' metacognition and created with the support of their teachers and peers optimal zones of proximal development; 6) challenging work was found to be a key element in students' developing confidence as researchers and writers; 7) students' biliteracy provided the foundation for students' learning in English; 8) students' engagement in collaborative inquiry was linked to both their improvement in English and a greater ability to work together to solve a problem; 9) adolescent ESL writing was found to develop in three distinct areas: increase of academic vocabulary, increase in the length of writing as demonstrated by the use of compound complex sentences and the use of transition words to connect paragraphs, and an increase in the ability to write more than one paragraph in a coherent manner.

The Appendices contain the various protocols used in the study. Appendix F is particularly noteworthy as it contains the unique writing processes—from choosing topics

to the publication of their final drafts-- of the four case study students: Mariela, Roberto, Gilda, and Mario.

The names of the cooperating teacher, the students, and the school district have all been changed.

Chapter 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This literature review focuses on three core themes relevant to the study: identity formation in adolescents, Vygotskian perspectives on literacy research, and second language acquisition theories and practice. The purpose of this literature review is to explore the connections among the theoretical foundations of identity formation in adolescents as it is applied to Vygotskian perspectives on literacy research and its implications for second language acquisition theories and practice. Within this exploration, special attention is given to the sociocultural foundations of the above theories and how these theories affect practice in an English as a Second Language classroom.

Identity Formation in Adolescents as Second Language Learners

This section explores the complexity of identity formation in adolescents who are second language learners. In the context of this study, identity formation is defined as

...a process of simultaneous reflection and observation, a process taking place on all levels of mental functioning, by which the individual judges himself in the light of what he perceives to be the way in which others judge him in comparison to themselves and to a typology significant to them. (Erickson, 1968, p. 22)

Erickson also maintains that this process is always changing and developing; it is not only located in the core of the individual but also in the core of his communal culture (pp. 22-23). This section of the literature review will examine two aspects of identity formation theory: psychological and cultural.

Psychological Perspectives

Identity formation is considered by psychologists as one of the most prominent developmental tasks associated with adolescence, a period characterized by rapid physiological, psychological, and social change (Swanson et al, 1998; Erickson, 1968; Lipsitz, 1977, 1980; Kagan & Coles, 1972, among others). Further, there are several psychological perspectives of identity formation: the psychosocial perspective, ecological perspectives, and phenomenological perspectives (Swanson et al, 1998). The psychosocial perspective takes into account the main task of identity formation. Erickson examines this task in terms of a developmental life-span approach while emphasizing the role of social and cultural factors on development; he analyzes their impact on personality development throughout life (Erickson, 1968). For McCandless and Evans, this process also involves an integration of “selves and identifications” with perceptions of future development (1973). As stated, synthesizing prior experiences with future expectations represents a crucial aspect of identity formation. From the psychosocial perspective, personal identity develops within the context of role relationships, and its development assumes a community of people whose values become central to the growing individual. For Erickson, identity depends upon how well one’s ego and role integration in one’s group are complimentary (Erickson, 1968).

A second perspective is an ecological perspective to identity formation. From this perspective, Swanson et al. (1998) see that wide variations exist in school experiences, particularly in relation to environmental risks, resource availability, family relations, and job-training opportunities. These ecologically embedded experiences have implications for academic achievement and work. They agree with Bronfenbrenner (1979), who states:

“Every human quality is inextricably embedded, and finds both its meaning and fullest expression, in particular environmental settings” (as cited in Swanson et al, p. 21).

Thus, in this view, environmental factors play an important role in youth’s identity formation. The ability to modify and reconstruct the environment, however, depends on being enabled to engage in behavior that influences the environment. This means that individuals develop as a function of behaviors or values that reflect an active and selective orientation toward the environment. Therefore, the context in which adolescents develop has important ramifications for psychological functioning. Ecological factors such as cultural stereotypes, family composition, school experiences and peer friendships play a major role in developmental processes. These researchers believe that such ecological influences contribute significantly to how the self is organized (p. 22).

A third perspective is the phenomenological perspective. This is the individual’s perception of intrapersonal and interpersonal experiences (Swanson et al, 1998). For Spencer, phenomenological processes, or an individual’s perception of that experience, are as important to the explanation of the experience as the actual experience (Spencer, 1995). In addition, Van Manen (1991) contends that phenomenology is “keenly interested in the significant world of the human being” (p. 9). He further asserts that writing is a tool that “produces more than text. The writer produces himself or herself” (p. 126).

For the purposes of this study, three psychological theories will be considered which shed light on the identity formation of adolescent second language learners: Erickson’s psychosocial theory of identity formation (1968); Penuel and Wertsch’s

examination of Vygotsky and identity formation within a sociocultural framework; and finally, Spencer's ICE (Identity-focused, Cultural, and Ecological) developmental framework, which considers the phenomenological processes of individual perceptions (1998).

Erickson's psychosocial theory of identity formation

Erickson considered the growth events of adolescence within a sociocultural context. He argued that identity must be integrated with culture and that one of the most important conflicts for individuals is the degree to which their own cultural identity is nurtured by members of their own culture and how it is validated by others in the community. Erickson argued that coordinating perspectives as a cognitive task was well suited to adolescents because they possessed the capacity for self-reflection and formal operational thinking which developed in tandem with identity.

In order to synthesize these multiple perspectives, Erickson developed a framework for an analysis of identity formation within three domains: fidelity, ideology, and work. Choosing commitments is the most basic process of identity formation for Erickson. He describes these choices in terms of the principle of fidelity, which he believed was the cornerstone of identity. This search for fidelity involves becoming committed to a group of people and to a set of ideas one can trust, through a process of active seeking and searching (Erickson, 1968). Thus, adolescents exploring their identities resent any attempts by others to impose values and practices on them. They need to be given the freedom of choice to explore various commitments.

Therefore, ideologies, Erickson's second domain, play an important mediating role in this stage of development by defining the terms by which adolescents will make

commitments to others and their ideas. As adolescents search for meaningful ideologies, they search for meaning that “provides a convincing world image” and provides hope for an “anticipated future” (Erickson, 1968, pp. 30-31).

This construct provides the foundation of hope for an anticipated future, which is grounded in the world of work and the choice of occupational goals. This allows youth to form a coherent identity in terms of a career choice. Thus, for Erickson, “the choice of an occupation assumes a significance beyond the question of remuneration and status” (Erickson, 1968, p. 129). The choice becomes integral to the larger needs of coherence that defines identity.

In summary, taken together, fidelity, ideology, and career choice form the three important domains of identity formation, according to Erickson.

Penuel and Wertsch: A sociocultural approach

Penuel and Wertsch (1995) build on Erickson’s psychosocial theory of identity formation by arguing that identity formation has connections to Vygotsky and involves:

...an encounter between the cultural resources for identity and individual choices with respect to fidelity, ideology, and commitment to a vocational path that takes place in human action. The role of language in mediating this encounter, moreover, is stressed. In this connection, identity formation as a moment of rhetorical action, concerned with using language in significant interpersonal contexts to form identities, is offered as a theoretical approach. (p. 85)

By “rhetorical,” the authors mean that the action of identity formation involves a process of persuasion: persuading oneself and others about who one is. Thus, the role of language in mediating this encounter is seen as a cultural tool that accomplishes this action. Penuel and Wertsch claim that although Vygotsky did not use the term identity in

his writings, he was concerned with individual development, because he saw individual mental processes as having their origin in social interaction (p.86). Further, the authors contend that Vygotsky's sociocultural approach involves the assertion that human action is mediated by tools and signs, with language considered as one of the higher mental functioning tools. From this perspective, Van Manen's assertion that by writing, one writes one's identity, writing can be seen as another of the higher mental functioning tools that mediates human action and reflection.

Penuel and Wertsch's theory contends that by integrating Vygotsky's theory with Erickson's theory, a more integrated approach to identity formation can be considered: "integrating individual functioning and sociocultural processes into a kind of mediated action approach to identity formation" (p. 88).

They believe that one of the most important insights of Erickson's theory of identity formation is the status he gave to the cultural and historical context of youth in building a coherent identity. For second language learners, then, this process of integrating their cultural identity in an historical context by using language as a mediational and rhetorical tool is central to their process of achieving coherence in their identity (my contention).

In summary, Penuel and Wertsch assert that their approach attempts to interpret meaningful human action, rather than isolating either inner states of individuals or sociocultural processes. In this context they see language as building identity:

By speaking and listening to others, the claim may be made, the signs as incorporated into the flow of action actually construct, or build up, the sense of self by providing terms to individuals they may employ when talking about themselves to others. It is for this reason [that] we suggest that identity be conceived as a form of action that is first and foremost

rhetorical, concerned with persuading others (and oneself) about who one is and what one values to meet different purposes. (p. 91)

Spencer's ICE (identity-focused, cultural, ecological) developmental framework

Spencer's ICE framework stresses the role of phenomenological processes—the individual's perception of an experience—as crucial to the explanation of an experience as the actual experience (Swanson, Spencer, & Peterson, 1998, p. 23). Spencer developed this framework in response to her work with African American youth (1995). This conceptual framework is concerned with risk, vulnerability and resiliency and has particular relevance for urban youth who confront their developmental tasks while growing up in high-risk environments. This theory conceptualizes the self within the larger systems and illustrates the impact of feedback from the environment on the organization of the self. This feedback is particularly related to individual differences of race, class, skin color, sexuality, gender, and maturational differences.

Streitmatter (as cited in Swanson et al) examined ethnicity and gender as related to identity status among a multiethnic sample of seventh and eighth graders and found that students are more likely to accept perceptions of limited social access than to explore additional options. These findings are consistent with other studies of ethnic identity and among multiethnic samples (1995), Mexican Americans (1986), and Native Americans (1986).

The ICE approach then integrates perceptions of ethnic status and provides a basis “for capturing the individual's intersubjectivity...[which] is especially relevant given the unique status of adolescent thought processes, which allow a degree of recursive thinking unavailable at earlier periods in development” (as cited in Swanson, Spencer, & Peterson,

1998, p. 25). Thus, Spencer agrees with Erickson's belief that adolescents are cognitively capable of reflective thinking that is instrumental to the growth of their identity. She also expands upon Vygotsky's sociocultural theory by emphasizing adolescents' response to their environmental contexts.

This theory has particular relevance, then, for understanding the identity formation of second language learners who are responding to both the cultural stresses of a new environment and the acquisition of a new language. Because perceptions of the self are gained through interaction with the environment, ethnic, cultural, and racial identity represent an integral aspect of the development and competence formation of minority youth. Thus, in this view:

...the achievement of a successful ethnic or racial identity for minority youth necessitates negotiating complex cognitive and affective dynamics....Because the process of 'biculturalism' or 'double consciousness' is imbedded within a social climate and exists in implicit and explicit notions of a superior white culture, considerable psychological conflict can exist. (p. 28)

These authors also see the positive effect of academic competence in reducing this kind of psychological conflict. They see academic competence not only as a pivotal resource for positive identity development during adolescence but also for negotiating the difficult transition to successful work in adulthood. Like Erickson, these authors see the choice of careers and work as a foundational domain in adolescent identity formation. And like Penuel's and Wertsch's assertion that by speaking about themselves to others, adolescents build up their sense of self, Spencer et al. (1998) believe that academic competence can contribute to a positive sense of self.

In this dissertation, I will contend that for second language learners these two aspects of speaking about oneself to others and gaining academic competence in a second language contribute to the positive identity formation of adolescents learning a second language; further, adolescents are capable of a phenomenological awareness of reflecting on their own processes of identity formation in relation to their acquisition of a second language.

The influence of culture on identity formation

For the secondary learner, cultural issues affecting second language acquisition play a significant role. For adolescents forming a new identity, culture is inextricably intertwined with this new identity formation. Language is seen as part of both culture and identity. For purposes of this study, culture is seen as an integral part of students' expression of identity and is defined as the following:

Culture consists of values, traditions, social and political relationships, and world view created, shared, and transformed by a group of people bound together by a common history, geographic location, language, social class and/or religion. Culture may also include communication style, attitudes, and family relationships. (Nieto, 2000, pp.139-140)

Acculturation is another part of the process of identity formation. The acculturation process can be viewed through four lenses: assimilation, acculturation, accommodation, and biculturalism. Assimilation is defined as the process in which members of an ethnic group are absorbed into the dominant culture, while losing their culture in the process (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). In contrast, acculturation means adapting effectively to the mainstream culture, without giving up one's first culture. Accommodation, on the other hand is defined as a two-way process in which members of both minority and majority cultures adapt to each other's culture. These stages of the

acculturation process can lead ultimately to a successful integration of both cultures—biculturalism (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Anthropologists have emphasized acculturation as a group process, whereas psychologists view acculturation as an intrapsychic process, where perceptions, attitudes, and cognitions of the individual are in a process of change. For the purposes of this study, the latter individual process as it relates to adolescents is adopted.

Moreover, some researchers see this process of acculturation through the lens of forming multiple identities (Pierce, 1995; Calderon, 1998; Olsen, 1988; Rodriguez & Trueba, 1998; Lima & Lima, 1998). For example, social identity can be seen as the various ways in which people understand themselves in relation to others, and how they view their past and future. The act of immigrating to a new country can deeply affect a person's social identity. In fact, some people experience this change more as an act of re-creation than as a temporary process of adjustment (Pierce, 1995).

According to Calderon (1998) adolescent immigration does indeed involve an act of re-creation. She views adolescent immigrant students as facing the transition from childhood to adolescence at the same time they are establishing an identity in a new culture. Further, Olsen (1988) emphasizes:

The immigrant needs to make comprehensible a whole new culture and language and to create a new self-concept which embraces both the old and the new. This process of acculturation involves painful, sometimes unconscious decisions, such as what is to be saved or sacrificed from the old, evaluating what one wants and needs to adopt from the new, and integrating these into a comfortable sense of self. (p. 30)

This conflict is seen by some Latino researchers as a way of creating multiple identities, which are adaptive strategies to a changing world. Rodriguez and Trueba

(1998) assert that the struggle of wrestling with identity is a daily event for Latinos. They argue that Latinos are creating a new common identity on the basis of common cultural values. The authors also contend that many of the processes associated with the formation of one's own identity are related to the acquisition of knowledge. Thus, according to this view, there are two parallel processes taking place: a psychological process of the redefinition of the self in adaptation to new social and political surroundings and the second process that is political, collective, and public.

Closely related to Rodriguez and Trueba's views is the definition of identity proposed by Lima and Lima (1998), which situates identity within culture. They assert that the cultural self is a mediated self and that for the individual, culture is the milieu of a person's development, "that is, it provides the forms and it constitutes the medium of experience of the lived self. The identity of the self is immediately the experienced identity with and of the forms of culture" (p. 323). Identity, at this level, is "the internal structuring of sociability that confers visibility and legibility to oneself as member of a group. Identity is cultural filiation" (p. 323). These authors also argue that bicultural/bilingual students need to make decisions more frequently because they have two diverse ways of perceiving reality and conveying meaning.

Another view of the self that is pertinent to this study is a view of the self as either "independent" or "interdependent" (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). For example, they contend that many Asian cultures emphasize relating to others, while American culture stresses independence from others and the importance of asserting the self. This interdependent view is also characteristic of African cultures, Latin American and Brazilian cultures, and many southern European cultures. One consequence of an

interdependent self is the requirement to ‘read’ the other’s mind and thus to know what the other is thinking. These views of the self, the authors argue, have effects on the cognition, emotion, motivation, and self-esteem of the second language learner.

Another consequence of this view of the self is particularly relevant to adolescents. For example, the independent self is characterized by expressing one’s opinions, being direct, and separating oneself from the social context. However, the interdependent self is closely connected with the social context, is indirect, has a need to belong and fit in, promote other’s goals, and maintain harmony within the social context (p. 230). Thus, for adolescents searching to form a coherent identity there may be a struggle between these two kinds of self.

In conclusion, we have seen the complexity of identity formation in adolescent second language learners. We have reviewed identity formation from two major perspectives: psychological and cultural. Within the psychological perspectives, Erickson’s psychosocial theory, Spencer’s and Van Manen’s phenomenological stance, and Penuel and Wertsch’s integration of Erickson and Vygotsky and its effect on identity formation within a sociocultural framework have been discussed. These psychological perspectives are seen as particularly relevant to the identity formation of adolescent second language learners. In addition, the role of culture is viewed as interdependent to the psychological perspectives and is considered as essential to the formation of a coherent identity.

Vygotskian Perspectives on Literacy Research

This section of the literature review examines Vygotsky's influence on literacy research. First, Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development will be discussed in light of his larger theory of child development; second, current literacy perspectives of Vygotsky's theory and its implications for classroom applications will be examined; and lastly, Vygostkian approaches to second language research will be discussed.

Vygotsky's theory of child development

In *Mind and Society* (1978), Vygotsky posited his theory of children's development in the context of a larger social history. In his experimental studies he found that children solved practical tasks with the help of speech as well as their eyes and hands. He believed that this complex human structure is the product of a developmental process deeply rooted in the links between individual and social history. In *Thought and Language* (1962/2002) he proposed that language is a highly personal, and at the same time, a profoundly social human process; there was a relation between the individual and society as a dialectical process. His views were deeply influenced by the German philosopher Engels, who stressed the critical role of labor and tools in transforming the relation between human beings and their environment. This critical role of labor and tools determined another form for analysis, called the theory of activity, which was developed in collaboration with Leont'ev and Luria (Wertsch, 1985, p. 9). Vygotsky, in particular, was influenced by the Marxian concept of a historically determined social psychology. Thus, Vygotsky views the psychology of human beings as culturally transmitted. Although he admits to the influence of nature on man, he asserts that man, in turn, affects nature and creates through his changes in nature new natural conditions for his existence.

Thus, Vygotsky posits an interaction between learning and the environment.

Development is viewed as a precondition of learning but never the result of it. Learning forms a superstructure over development. This thinking leads Vygotsky to his notion that what children do with the assistance of others might be in some sense even more indicative of their mental development than what they can do alone—this he calls the zone of proximal development:

It is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.

The zone of proximal development defines those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state. These functions could be termed the ‘buds’ or ‘flowers’ of development rather than the ‘fruits’ of development. The actual developmental level characterizes mental development retrospectively, while the zone of proximal development characterizes mental development prospectively. (1978, p. 86)

Tudge (1990) notes that within this zone, language is the key mediational tool (p. 157). Just as Marx wrote that the first use of tools mediated humans’ experience of the physical environment and had a large impact on social relations among people, Vygotsky used the notion of “psychological tools” to explain the developmental stages from “natural” processes to higher mental processes. He further explicates:

Thus language, a tool of immense power, ensures that linguistically created meanings are shared meaning, social meanings. Words that already have meaning for mature members of a cultural group come to have those same meanings for the young of the group in the process of interaction. Collaboration with another person, either an adult or a more competent peer, in the zone of proximal development thus leads to development in culturally appropriate ways. (p. 157)

This emphasis on collaboration among peers is the focus of much of the recent Vygotskian research (Forman & Cazden, 1985; Wertsch, 1985; Martin, 1985; Wells, 1999, 2000; Smagorinsky & O'Donnell-Allen, 2000). The zone of proximal development, then, is seen in the context of Vygotsky's overall theoretical position, which emphasizes the joint attainment of meaning.

Further, Wells (1999) asserts that Vygotsky's last major work, *Thinking and Speech* (1934/1987), emphasizes the role of instruction in relation to the development of the higher mental functions that are depicted by conscious awareness and volition. He cites Vygotsky's explanation of instruction:

Instruction is only useful when it moves ahead of development, leading the child to carry out activities that force him to rise above himself... The teacher, working with the school child on a given question, explains, informs, inquires, corrects, and forces the child himself to explain. All this work on concepts, the entire process of their formation, is worked out by the child in collaboration with the adult in instruction. Now, [i.e., in the test situation] when the child solves a problem... [he] must make independent use of the results of that earlier collaboration. (as cited in Wells, 1999, p. 314)

In summary, for the purpose of this study, Vygotsky's developmental theory is critical in understanding the importance of language as a mediational tool that promotes both individual and social development in second language learners, as well as the educational and instructional implications of the zone of proximal development as applied in the classroom.

Vygotskian perspectives on literacy research

Lee and Smagorinsky (2000) have argued that the core tenets discussed above have influenced the current debates in literacy research because of the centrality of

language and the inherently social nature of literacy learning and practice. They suggest that the following questions are at the heart of such a debate:

- What is the role of language in learning to read and write?
- What is the role of dialogue in literacy learning?
- How do we study the complexity of joint activity in classrooms and other spaces where literacy is learned and practiced?
- How do cultural practices and beliefs contribute to the practices and the learning of literacy? (p. 3)

In this section, the answers to these questions are explored by examining some of the current trends in educational implications (Gallimore & Tharp, 1988, 1990; Kozulin, 1998; Wells, 1999; Goodman & Goodman, 1990; Cambourne, 2002) and instructional applications as discussed by Wells (2000), and Moll (2000). For the purposes of this study, these implications are seen in the context of adolescents learning a second language.

Gallimore and Tharp (1990) contend that the importance of Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) is its influence on developing educational theory that can be used in teaching. They state the following:

We can therefore derive this general definition of teaching: teaching consists of assisting performance through the Zone of Proximal Development. Teaching can be said to occur when assistance is offered at points in the ZPD at which performance requires assistance. (p.177)

They point out that there are seven methods of assisted performance. They include modeling, feeding back, contingency managing, directing, questioning, explaining, and task structuring. For Gallimore and Tharp, however, the key to assisted

performance is in the instructional conversation where the development of thinking skills—the ability to form, express, and exchange ideas in speech and writing—happens through dialogue: the questioning and sharing of ideas and knowledge that happen in conversation (1991, p.4). This implies that the assistor (or teacher) must be in close touch with the learner's relationship to the task and his/her performance level.

Moreover, Gallimore and Tharp quote Ochs (1982) in contending that this form of dialogue is one of the most distinctive characteristics of middle-class Anglo caregivers (p. 197). However, for children from other cultures this kind of dialogue may not take place (Heath, 1983; Kozulin, 1998). They emphasize that teachers must then provide this kind of meaningful dialogue within the school setting in order for students to become successful:

Teachers need to recognize that many children will not have experiences through which their thinking might be extended unless these are provided in school...and [teachers need] to recognize the critical importance of the experiences they themselves provide through their own talk with children. (p.197)

I maintain in this dissertation that for adolescent second language learners this kind of instructional conversation or dialogue is critical in assisting learners through the ZPD to the second stage of development where they can perform an activity by themselves. Moreover, this kind of assistance provides students with academic vocabulary knowledge and discourse. Gallimore and Tharp assert that one of Vygotsky's key concepts is that word meaning is the basic unit for the analysis of consciousness. This includes the larger concept of discourse that refers to both vocabulary and discourse competencies that develop in the context of social use in joint activity. They conclude:

Literacy is achieved through the creation of opportunities for students to be assisted in the use of word meanings, conceptual structures, and discourse itself—so that signs and symbols take on new and shared meanings as they are hallowed by use during joint productive activity, taken underground, and stripped down to the lightning of thought.
(1990, p. 200)

Kozulin (1998) corroborates the use of the instructional conversation by emphasizing the importance of the teacher in providing activities in the classroom that are group centered. He asserts that the role of the teacher is that of advisor and participant, which he contends fits well into Vygotsky's (1978) understanding of the process of activity internalization (p. 57). According to Vygotsky, many relationships that first appear in a group activity are later internalized by the student as the relations between his or her inner intellectual processes. Therefore, the role of a teacher as an advisor working within the group becomes "internalized by the child as his own internal function of reference and control" (p. 57). For the adolescent, this kind of group activity and the establishment of personal relationships have the highest priority (Elkonin, 1971).

An important corollary of Vygotsky's theory of instruction is Wells' (1995) assertion of the importance of educational activities being meaningful and relevant to students at the time that they engage in them. Adopting this approach involves the teacher in negotiating the curriculum with students and allowing students' choice of a class topic to be explored.

In this context, the ZPD is treated as an attribute, not of the student alone, but of the student in relation to the specifics of a particular activity setting. In other words:

The zone of proximal development is created in the interaction between the student and the co-participants in an activity, including the available tools and the selected practices, and depends on the nature and quality of

that interaction as much as the upper limit of the learner's capability. (Wells, 1999, p. 318).

Wells also believes that both the purposes and the means of joint action are themselves constantly undergoing transformation. First, there is the transformation of the individual in terms of his or her capacity to participate more effectively in future actions; second, if the problem demands a novel solution, the invention of new tools or the modifications of existing ones transforms the culture's toolkit and adds to its repertoire for problem solving; third, there is the transformation of the activity setting which opens up further possibilities for action; and lastly, there is the transformation in the social organization of the group and in the ways in which the members relate to each other (pp. 327-328).

In this sense, then, teachers as well as students undergo transformations and become collaborators in their inquiries. The ZPD is now seen as it emerges in the activity and, as participants jointly resolve problems and construct solutions. The potential for further learning is expanded because new possibilities open up that were first unforeseen.

In summary, Wells concludes that far from being simply a better pedagogical method, the ZPD offers an "insightful and theoretically coherent way of thinking about the complex nature of the transformations that are involved in learning and of the multiple ways in which learning can be assisted" (p.334).

Goodman and Goodman (1990) would agree with Wells' contention that the ZPD offers a theoretically coherent way to view learning. They also assert that whole language philosophy draws heavily upon Vygotsky's concepts, in particular his view that learning is holistic and language is learned in authentic learning situations. They cite the

following passage from Vygotsky: “The best method [for teaching reading and writing] is one in which children do not learn to read and write but in which both these skills are found in play situations.... In the same way as children learn to speak, they should be able to learn to read and write” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 118).

For the Goodmans, this basic tenet lays the foundation for natural learning and authentic literacy events. They define authentic literacy events as having personal and significant meaning for the language user, and within these events, there are transactions between the reader and the text in which the reader is continuously solving new problems and building and extending psycholinguistic strategies (p. 225). Through these transactions text serves to mediate the development of reading and writing. In this dissertation, I contend that these second language adolescents are involved in authentic literacy events as they are researching topics of their own choice. Because they are constantly involved in the reading and writing process, the text serves to mediate the development of English as their second language.

Another basic tenet of whole language philosophy is that kids learn when they are in control of their learning and know that they are in control (p. 226). The Goodmans believe, then, that the purpose of schools is to help learners expand upon what they know and to help them in identifying needs and interests. Dewey’s pragmatic philosophy (1902), they contend, is also instrumental in the grounding of whole language philosophy. There is no useful separation between ends and means in learning: what we learn today is the means for further learning tomorrow. Thus, learning by doing is essential. We learn to read by reading and to write by writing as we are using literacy for purposes that are

important to ourselves. In this context, skills cannot be isolated from their use; in fact, they develop most easily in the context of their use (Goodman & Goodman, 1990, p. 227).

Defining learning in this sense requires also that teaching be defined as providing the support needed for learners to acquire literacy. Teachers act as mediators by asking a question, offering a hint, calling attention to overlooked information, and supporting learners as they synthesize what they are learning into new concepts (p.236). Whole language teachers agree with Vygotsky's view that "even the profoundest thinkers never questioned that what children can do with the assistance of others might be in some sense even more indicative of their mental development than what they can do alone" (1978, p. 85). Such teachers, therefore, must know a great deal about their students and the communities in which their students live in order to provide for and support authentic opportunities for learning. They must be aware of students' cultural needs. In the context of this study, I view teaching as mediating learning in the context of students learning to read and write English in authentic literacy experiences.

Cambourne (2002) takes another look at holistic learning by seeing it in the framework of constructivist theory. He defines constructivism as a set of assumptions about learners and the learning process. He argues that there are three core theoretical assumptions:

- What is learned cannot be separated from the context in which it is learned.
- The purposes or goals that the learner brings to the learning situation are central to what is learned.
- Knowledge and meaning are socially constructed through the processes of negotiation, evaluation, and transformation (p. 26).

A corollary of this paradigm is what Cambourne has developed as his Principles of Engagement (1988, 1995). These principles refer to the fact that learners will become engaged in learning when they believe they are capable of learning whatever is being demonstrated. Learners also become engaged when they believe that learning is purposeful, and that they engage in demonstrations given by someone they respect and admire.

He contends this kind of deep engagement in learning to read is promoted by reflection. I assert in this dissertation that as students reflected upon their learning, they were more aware of what they needed to know and thus created optimal zones of proximal development for learning English through the research process.

This kind of reflection also leads to a kind of transformative learning. Cambourne states that this kind of transformation happens when learners transform knowledge and or/skills that others have modeled into knowledge that is uniquely theirs. He restates this concept by writing that this process is similar to creating a personal paraphrase or expressing some concept in one's own words while closely maintaining the original meaning (2002, p. 36). In this dissertation, since students in the research process are constantly taking notes and "paraphrasing" what they have read, they are creating their own personal paraphrases, which leads to a kind of transformation in their learning to read and write in English.

Constructivist teachers, then, aim to make explicit many things about reading, writing, learning and language that most adult readers take for granted. They do this by

helping students develop metatextual awareness which Cambourne defines as students being consciously aware of and being able:

...to articulate in persuasive and coherent ways, knowledge about and understanding of the ways texts function, the process and strategies that effective readers use when creating meaning from these texts, and the range of options available to them for solving the literacy-related problems they were expected to solve. (p.37)

In conclusion, Cambourne believes that the above concepts are congruent with a holistic, integrated approach to teaching reading and language arts that is defined by Goodman & Goodman (1990) as a whole language philosophy. The most important premise is that the focus is on learners as constructors of their own knowledge in a context similar to that in which they would apply their own knowledge. Learners are encouraged to think critically as they monitor their own understanding at the metacognitive level in the context where social negotiation of meaning is an important part of the learning community that is created.

In current sociocultural studies of literacy, Lee and Smagorinsky (2000) assert that there are four issues that are central to understanding how people come to learn new knowledge: the importance of speech in relation to learning; the potential of different kinds of tools and signs; the negotiation of knowledge within social groups working on common tasks; and the ways in which literate practices occur outside traditional schooling (pp. 4-5).

Another area of current literacy study is the focus on collaborative inquiry which is based not only on Vygotsky's (1987) view that meaning is constructed through the process of articulating ideas, but also on the work of Dewey (1956) who conceptualized schools as sites of collaborative inquiry. In addition, there has been a renewed emphasis

and support for cooperative learning and the importance of tasks carried out in small groups (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993; Salvin, 1983).

Wells (2000) explicitly describes the need for learning to take place within communities of collaborative inquiry. In Wells' view, Vygotsky's idea of the zone of proximal development suggests that all learning is in some way collaborative. Further, the formation of individual persons—their identities, values and skills—occurs through their participation in certain activity systems such as involvement with family, school, work, and leisure. Through this participation, then, persons depend on the support and assistance from other members of their communities in receiving the specific values and knowledge of their particular communities (Wells, 2000, p. 55). As Lave and Wenger (1991) insist, learning is not a separate and independent activity, but a crucial aspect of participation in any community of practice.

Thus, Wells believes Vygotsky's zone of proximal development is best understood as the zone in which an individual is able to achieve more with help than one can achieve alone. Further, because the whole person is involved in joint activity, there is an identity-forming effect of this assistance.

Wells would agree with Cambourne that Vygotskian theory as applied to education is defined as social constructivism in which learning and teaching is both exploratory and collaborative. This calls for a reconceptualization of the curriculum in terms of the negotiated selection of activities that challenge students to go beyond themselves toward goals that have personal significance for them. For Wells, this means constructing classrooms and schools as communities of inquiry. From this stance, inquiry is seen as an openness to engage in systematic inquiry about the questions or topics in

which one is interested. From this perspective, inquiry is as much about being open to wondering and puzzlement and constructing possible explanations as it is about mastering any specific body of information (p. 63).

Another view of Vygotsky is proposed by Moll (2000), among others (Velez-Ibanez, 1993; Wellman, 1985; Scribner, 1990; Guitierrez & Stone, 2000). These researchers have as a central theme the cultural mediation of educational practice. Moll suggests that a central tenet of his educational theory and practice is the understanding of culture within a contemporary cultural-historical or Vygotskian approach (2000, p. 256). He proposes moving away from normative notions of culture toward a more dynamic interpretation that is called in Spanish *la cultura vivida*, how people live culturally. That is, he seeks to understand culture in human practices, “situated in people’s involvement with (and creation of) the multiple contexts that constitute their social worlds” (p. 258).

Moll’s most recent educational research has as a central activity the ethnographic analysis of households by classroom teachers. The purpose here is for teachers to document the cultural resources found in the immediate school community, as represented by the students’ households that could be used for teaching. From a Vygotskian perspective, this approach seeks to understand culture as practice and to use its resources to transform social and educational reality. Moll refers to these cultural bodies of knowledge as “funds of knowledge” that underlie household activities (p. 258). Some of these activities might include knowledge from the fields of agriculture, construction, arts, economics, repair and religion. The emphasis here is on the strategic knowledge and related activities that are essential in household functioning, development, and well-being. Through interviews with family members, these funds of knowledge can

become part of a teacher's community perception, where competence is routinely expected. This kind of acceptance creates new social relationships between teachers and families where there develops the beginnings of a trusting relationship with the family, what Moll refers to as *confianza* (p. 259).

Because of these new relationships, teachers have come to develop theme units or cycles that involve students actively in their own learning that build directly on knowledge and practices found in local homes (Gonzalez et al, 1995; Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992). Central to this development is the formation of study groups between teachers and researchers, which Moll refers to as "mediating structures." Teachers in these studies have referred to the study groups as central to their development during the course of the study. In Vygotskian terms, these settings became cultural devices for thinking and learning (p. 260). Further, Moll refers to these mediated moves from household ethnography to study group to classroom practice and the theoretical implications of these moves as "ethnographic experiments."

Thus, the key point for Moll and others is that human beings and their social and cultural worlds are inseparable—they are embedded in each other. This includes the relation of literacy to particular social groups and their cultural practices. Moll extends this view to his understanding of biliteracy, which he asserts is most powerful because a bilingual person can read a text in one language and discuss it in the other. In this sense, "biliteracy mediates and amplifies the cultural experiences of learners in ways not possible in one language alone" (Moll & Dworin, 1996). Therefore, biliteracy mediates the intellect not only by providing access to the real world of the community that offers different aspects of the literate world, but also by creating new worlds that have not

existed before. I assert in this dissertation that my bilingual adolescents mediated their world by conversing in two languages to understand text, and thus with this new understanding they created new worlds of possibilities through the research process of exploring ideas and possibilities for future work. For many of these students, their culture was embedded within the development of new perspectives.

Vygotskian approaches to second language acquisition

According to Lantolf & Appel (1994), second language research within the Vygotskian theory has been carried out for decades in the former Soviet Union. However, in the United States this work has only begun recently, thanks to the efforts of such researchers as James Wertsch, Michael Cole, Vera John-Steiner, Alex Kozulin, and Jan Valsiner (p. 27). These authors contend that most second language research has been grounded in quantitative data, and that by embracing sociocultural theory and Vygotskian research methodology, there is a greater potential for developing a fuller understanding of second language phenomena.

Researchers such as Donato (1994) claim that Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development can be extended to the concept of scaffolded help that peers can provide to each other during the learning of a second language. In a series of experiments that he conducted with English learners learning French, he discovered that scaffolding occurs routinely as students work together on language learning tasks. He asserts that the effects of this help are substantial enough to redefine the role played by the social context of L2 development as well as considering learners themselves as a source of knowledge in a social context. Further, he claims: "The microgenetic analysis of collective activity has revealed that in the process of peer scaffolding, learners can

expand their own L2 knowledge and extend the linguistic development of their peers” (p. 52).

Likewise, John-Steiner (1985) asserts that Vygotsky was interested in the use of two or more languages because he recognized in the study of bilingualism an important context for the examination of the role of language in thought. She cites Vygotsky’s paper “The Question of Multilingualism in Childhood” (1935) as proposing a different approach to the understanding of bilingualism. In this paper, Vygotsky claims that “both...the native and foreign language have between them a great deal in common.... [T]hey are internally united” (as cited in John-Steiner, p. 349).

The similarities and differences between the acquisition of a first versus that of a second language have been the subject of much controversy among psycholinguists. For the purpose of this dissertation, I take the stance that second language acquisition is similar to the natural learning process of acquiring a first language, and Vygotsky’s sociocultural stance has much to offer to the understanding of second language learners’ processes, especially among older learners and adolescents (Second language acquisition theories will be discussed in more detail in the final section of this literature review).

John-Steiner also discusses the influence of Vygotsky’s theory in developing a better understanding of second language acquisition among older learners. Vygotsky believed that there was a correlation between the knowledge of one’s native language and the acquisition of a second language. One was dependent upon the other. His general conclusion was that “acquisition of a second language is indeed dependent upon the level of development of the native language” (p. 350). The more literate one is in the native language, the easier the transfer to the learning of the second language.

Vygotsky further asserts that the “child acquiring a foreign language is already in command of a system of meaning in the native language which she/he transfers to the sphere of another language” (1935, p. 48). This implies that older learners can accelerate their second language acquisition processes because as more experienced learners, they make conscious use of cognitive and linguistic strategies that they first developed while acquiring their native language (John-Steiner, 1985, p. 350). Swain (1980) has also commented that older second language learners are more efficient in some aspects of language development because they are more cognitively mature and thus able to abstract and generalize in applying second language rules.

Vygotsky also proposed that the attainment of literacy itself contributes to linguistic-cognitive development, as it requires the “conscious realization of one’s linguist processes” (p. 352). This construct implies that there is a link between interpersonal uses of language, such as in dialogic exchanges, and the development of the cognitive intrapersonal functions of speech. Therefore, the learning of writing contributes to a deeper, more conscious awareness of one’s own speech.

To test some of these theories, John-Steiner conducted a pilot study to find out what strategies older learners use to obtain comprehensible input. She interviewed five foreign scholars as well as native speakers of English who had worked and studied abroad and speakers of French, German, Czech, Japanese, and Spanish whose work or studies brought them to this country during the 1980 Summer Institute of the Linguistic Society of America.

She asked the following kinds of questions to her informants: learner strategies dealing with exposure to comprehensible input; processing strategies, including

comprehension, memory, and representational activities; production strategies such as translation; as well as the choice of topic and setting that influence speech in a weaker language.

As a result of this study John-Steiner found the following:

- **Input strategies:** learners limited conversation to one person at a time and tried to find a mutually agreeable topic of conversation. Adult learners also seek a multiplicity of language input. Written materials were particularly important to them. Advanced reading was also mentioned to be helpful. For example graduate students reported that reading extensively before lectures helped them understand the technical vocabulary mentioned. This supports Vygotsky's analysis of the central role of literacy among adult learners (p. 360).
- **Processing strategies:** The major finding in this category was that the diverse ways in which learners approach the complex tasks of comprehending and processing a target language reflects, in part, culturally and educationally specific experiences. For example, Europeans relied heavily on the use of dictionaries and the memorization of words and texts (p. 361).
- **Production strategies:** One woman reported that in order to have longer conversations in Spanish she would insert English words in her sentences. Another learner reported that in order to gain some academic vocabulary and discourse skills, she would ask her American host questions about women's issues in this country (p. 362).

- Sociolinguistic and affective issues: At early stages of second –language learning, criticism is very hard on the learners. They preferred to speak with those who paid more attention to the content of their conversation rather than their mistakes in grammar and pronunciation. They also reported feeling frustrated that they could not express their feelings adequately.

John-Steiner summarizes that these interviews reflect the many active and systematic strategies that adults used during the first few months of their learning to control their input, to maximize their productions, and to remember features of the new language. The role of written materials was striking among those learners who received little professional assistance while acquiring a target language. She asserts that her findings confirm Vygotsky’s analysis that learners of a second language depend upon their native language as the internal structure through which they internalized their verbal and nonverbal experiences. For the purposes of this dissertation, I contend that adolescents learning a second language also depend on the internal structure of their native language in order to transfer their competencies to the learning of English. The more literate a student is in their native language, the more they can accelerate the learning of their second language. These contentions will be further explored in the next section of this literature review which will discuss the sociocultural basis of second language acquisition theories and its application to classroom practice.

Second Language Acquisition Theories

This last section briefly discusses second language acquisition theories that have as their foundation a sociocultural stance. First, the following theories will be discussed: The Monitor Hypothesis (Krashen, 1984), Shumann’s Acculturation Model (1978), Giles

Accommodation Theory (1982), the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1981), Discourse Theory as proposed by Hatch (1978) and Gee (1990, 1992), as well as Hakuta's Five Structures of Language Learning Model (1994). Lastly, Cummins' emphasis on a "common underlying proficiency" (1989) will be examined in light of Vygotskian theory.

According to Ellis (1996), Krashen's Five Step Monitor Model has enjoyed considerable prominence in SLA (second language acquisition) research. Even though it is one of the most comprehensive of existing theories, Ellis maintains that it is flawed because it pays little attention to learner variability (p. 402). However, Krashen, I believe has been influenced by Vygotsky, especially in his Input Hypothesis. This hypothesis states that 'acquisition' takes place as a result of the learner having understood meaningful language or, comprehensible input that is a little beyond the current level of his/her competence (Krashen, 1984, p. 73). Just as Vygotsky's zone of proximal development states that learners learn best when they learn just beyond their ZPD, Krashen suggests a similar process for the learning of a second language.

Further, central to Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis is the relationship between how acquisition and learning are used in the production of language. This is stated in his Acquisition Learning Hypothesis. Krashen believes that acquisition occurs subconsciously as a result of participating in natural communication where the focus is on meaning. Learning, however, occurs as a result of conscious study of the formal properties of the language. The Monitor is the device that learners use to edit their language performance depending upon learned language. Learning, Krashen believes, helps us to change the output of our acquisition system in order to perform beyond our competence (Krashen, 1984).

The part of Krashen's theory that pertains to sociocultural factors in learning language is called The Affective Filter Hypothesis. This part of the theory deals with such factors as the learner's motivation, self-confidence, or anxiety state. Learners with high motivation and self-confidence and with low anxiety have low filters and so obtain and let in plenty of input (as cited in Ellis, 1996, p. 404).

Schumann's Acculturation Model expands upon Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis, giving more emphasis to sociocultural factors in SLA. The central premise of the Acculturation Model is that "second language acquisition is just one aspect of acculturation and the degree to which a learner acculturates to the target language group will control the degree to which he acquires the second language" (Schumann, 1978, p. 34).

In other words, the greater the distance between two cultures, the greater the difficulty the learner will have in learning the second language, and conversely, the smaller the social distance, the better will be the language learning situation. Schumann claims that for a learner to acquire full proficiency in a second language, one must be acculturated because SLA is just one aspect of the larger process of acculturation.

The Accommodation Theory of Giles and Byrne (1982) shares certain premises with the Acculturation Model, but it also differs in significant ways. Both Schumann and Giles seek the answer to successful second language acquisition in the relationships between the learner's social group (termed the "ingroup") and the target language community (termed the "outgroup"). However, Schumann explains these relationships in terms of variables that create actual social distance, whereas Giles explains these in terms of perceived social distance (Ellis, 1996, p. 397). Giles argues that it is how the ingroup

defines itself in relationship to the outgroup that is important for SLA, but these intergroup relationships are subject to constant negotiation during the course of each interaction. Thus, these relationships are dynamic and fluctuate according to the shifting views of identity held by each group as seen by each other. Likewise, Giles agrees with Gardner (1979) that motivation is the primary determinant of L2 proficiency. This level of motivation is seen as a response to how individual learners define themselves in ethnic terms.

Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1983) builds on the above theories. Long states that we learn language as we interact with speakers of the target language, and that learners' comprehension is increased as they learn to negotiate meaning during conversational interactions. Long's focus is on developing discourse competence.

Hatch (1978) proposes another kind of SLA theory, that which concerns itself with the nature of discourse. She would agree with Long that language development should be considered in terms of how the learner discovers the meaning potential of language by participating in communication. The main principles of Discourse Theory as proposed by Hatch are the following main constructs: SLA follows a 'natural' route in syntactical development; native speakers adjust their speech in order to negotiate meaning with non-native speakers; the "natural" route is the result of learning how to hold conversations (as cited in Ellis, 1996, p. 401). In this way, Hatch is interested in explaining the rate of SLA and the level of proficiency achieved—in other words, the process of second language acquisition. Hatch's research focuses on providing answers to these questions by qualitative analyses of face-to-face interactions involving L2 learners, and the route of development is explained in terms of the properties of these

interactions. Hatch, thus, concerns herself with the external process of language acquisition, not the internal processes.

In contrast, James Gee (1989) discusses discourse in terms of the acquisition of multiple literacies. He defines discourse as “a socially accepted association among ways of using language, of thinking, and of acting that can be used to identify oneself as a member of a socially meaningful group or “social network” (Gee, 1989, p. 18). He thinks of discourse as an “identity kit” which gives persons the instructions on how to act and talk. Persons thus take on particular roles through their particular “identity kits.”

Gee also distinguishes between acquisition and learning. He believes that acquisition is a process of acquiring something subconsciously by exposure to models, a process of trial and error, and practice within social groups, without formal teaching. On the other hand, learning is a process that involves conscious knowledge gained through teaching, though not necessarily by a formal teacher. He further asserts that acquisition is good for performance, whereas learning is good for meta-level knowledge. Learning to read, then, is always learning some aspect of some discourse (1989, pp. 20-21).

On another level, Gee proposes that as we learn a new language, we move into new discourse communities, and we have to learn how to use language appropriately in those different contexts; output as well as input plays an important role in developing communicative competence within a discourse. He modifies Krashen’s definition of learning to include learning through reflection on experience or meta-knowledge.

In addition, Gee proposes that there are multiple discourses consisting of primary, secondary and tertiary discourses. Primary discourses consist of those discourses learned in the community as part of enculturation. Secondary discourses, however, are part of the

discourses learned in school, work places, or government offices, for example. These secondary discourses imply knowledge of the dominant culture. Literacy, in this view, is defined as a dominant literacy that is in control of a secondary use of language. For Gee, language is power and that power is enhanced when one attains the capability of critiquing both the primary and secondary discourses. This might be defined as a “tertiary” or mastery discourse. Gee explicates:

One cannot critique one discourse without another one (which is the only way to seriously criticize and thus change a discourse) unless one has meta-level knowledge in both discourses.... Thus, powerful literacy, as defined above, almost always involves learning, and not just acquisition (1989, p. 23).

Hakuta’s Five Structures of Language Learning Model (1994) incorporates many of the aspects of second language acquisition discussed above. He and Bialystok propose that language acquisition depends on five structures of language learning: language, brain, mind, self, and culture. It is the most inclusive of all the theories with an emphasis on the sociocultural aspects of learning language; one of Hakuta’s basic tenets is that it is impossible to disentangle language from its cultural meanings (1994, p. 9). Further, second language learning is simply “language learning” which is a process of constructing a new system from all available human resources.

Another of Hakuta’s tenets is his belief in the functionalism of language. His view is that cognitive and social functions of language in large measure determine what we know as grammar. This implies that language is a tool, in the Vygotskian sense, and as a tool it is open to new sets of rules. In fact he states that because there is something inherently universal about cognition, it is the “tool maker” (p. 39).

When Hakuta speaks about the Brain and the Mind, he refers to two constructs of language learning: learning a second language proceeds by taking the same path in the brain as the path of first language acquisition; however, bilingual speakers may go through a dual process in learning by having both a general linguistic knowledge of language and also a separate representation that records language specific information. What unites language in the mind is meaning—language is meaningful (p. 120).

Hakuta refers to the importance of the Self mainly as it refers to attitude and motivation. He cites Lalonde and Gardner's (1984) research, which found that personality influences language attitudes and attitudes towards learning language has an effect on proficiency. He also agrees with Schumann's Acculturation Model (1978) that emphasized the importance of the social and affective sides of second language acquisition.

The last construct that Hakuta discusses is Culture. He maintains that to learn a second language is to equip oneself with a powerful tool to construct a new culture (p. 161). Language, then, is a powerful marker of social identity, which permeates all its structural aspects.

Cummins (1996) extends both Hakuta's model and Gee's view of discourse. Cummins sees discourses as closely linked to patterns of power relations in a society. He proposes that the main purpose of schooling in almost all societies is the transmission of internalized discourses that reinforce national and cultural identities.

Embedded in the power of discourses is Cummins' SLA research where he proposes three tenets of second language acquisition. First, Cummins (1996) maintains that instruction should be aimed at a context-embedded, cognitively demanding level. He

states that this is compatible with both Krashen's (1981) theory of comprehensible input and with Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD. However, he differs with these constructs in several ways. Instead of comprehensible input, for example, he prefers the term "communicative interaction" which is a more active term. In order to accelerate second language learners' progress, he believes that students need to be provided with many opportunities for active language use, both oral and written.

Likewise he further defines Vygotsky's ZPD as the interpersonal space where minds meet and new understandings can arise through collaborative interaction and inquiry. He points out that Newman, Griffin, and Cole (1989) label this interpersonal space as a "construction zone." Cummins elaborates this by saying, "Teacher-student collaboration in the construction of knowledge will operate effectively only in contexts where student identities are being affirmed" (1996, p. 26). With this definition, Cummins supports the affective side of language acquisition.

Another important tenet that Cummins proposes is that native language literacy benefits second language learners and, therefore, native language literacy should be promoted (1989). He asserts that we can learn in one language and discuss what we've learned in another because the concepts themselves form the basis for an underlying proficiency. Cummins calls this knowledge a "common underlying proficiency." Similarly, as previously discussed, Vygotsky suggested in 1935 that both the native and foreign language are "internally united."

The third tenet of Cummins' SLA theory is his contention that it takes one to two years to develop basic conversational skills. This is called the BICS (Basic interpersonal conversational skill). On the other hand, cognitive skills which require higher order

thinking skills and academic language take between 5-7 years to develop. This is called the CALPS (Cognitive academic learning proficiency skills). I believe that these time frames are only time frames and vary from learner to learner depending on their level of native literacy. In his later work, *Negotiating Identities* (1996), Cummins further suggests that language acquisition can be accelerated if students are given many challenging opportunities for actively using language, with immersion in both oral and written skills.

Peregoy and Boyle (1997) would agree with Cummins. They maintain that language acquisition and learning depend on two key factors: “access to, and participation in, legitimate social activities in which students use multiple forms and functions of language with the goal of understanding and using new discourse appropriate to accomplish their purposes” (p. 97). Faltis (1997) coined the phrase “comprehensible invite” to mean oral and written language that invites learners to participate in the social construction of knowledge. This is particularly true for adolescent learners who are in the process of constructing their identities and thus wanting to choose literacy tasks that are meaningful to their purposes.

For the purposes of this dissertation, I take the stance that as my ESL students were conducting yearlong research projects of their own choosing, they were learning secondary discourses. As they acquired the “identity kit” of a researcher asking questions and writing in the academic language required of a research paper, I believe that they were also developing aspects of a mastery discourse.

Since the importance of research and theory is the impact on practice, the next section of this literature review will examine effective practices for second language adolescent learners, in particular effective practices for Latino students.

Effective Practices for Latino Students

Much has been written about effective practices for Latino students (Chavez, 1997; McDermott, 1987; Lockwood & Secada, 2000; Fashola et al, 1997). On the other hand, much has also been written about the high failure rate among adolescent Latino students (Garcia, 1994; Darder & Upshur, 1993; Lockwood & Secada, 2000). The purpose of this section is to highlight the most common themes about effective practices for Latino adolescents that appear in the literature. In addition, these common themes provide the framework for the practices highlighted in this dissertation study: a sociocultural perspective, listening to student voices, the role of teachers, and salient curriculum features.

A sociocultural perspective

The research of the past twelve years has emphasized the need to match Latinos' culture and language to school instruction (Trueba, 1990; Heath, 1989; Nieto, 1992; Benjamin, 1998). For example, Trueba (1990) writes that "Language and culture are inseparable in the process of mediation between social and mental processes that constitute the instructional process.... Language and culture play a key role in the organization of cognitive tasks, the development of critical thinking skills, and the process of creative thinking (as cited in Huerta-Macias, 1998). This implies that crucial to the success of Latino adolescents is developing a learning context that is multiculturally sensitive, where differences are acknowledged and appreciated, and where learning in non-mainstream patterns is encouraged. Classroom interactions also need to be culturally congruent with students' experiences outside the classroom.

Likewise, Heath's study (1989) points to the importance of recognizing cultural ways of thinking. She found that questioning patterns in Mexican-American families are unlike the patterns found in mainstream classrooms. Learning is acquired more through observation in the home. Also crucial are family values which emphasize "respeto", patience, responsibility, cooperation, and interdependence. Nieto (1992) found similar patterns among Puerto Ricans and noticed that teachers who incorporated these values into their classrooms used more conditional tenses, personal appeals, and polite forms of address.

Moreover, recent research recognizes the importance of identity formation in the middle schools and linking identity issues with curriculum planning (Benjamin, 1998; Santrock; 1993; Swanson et al, 1998). Benjamin asserts that Latino adolescents must not only "come to terms with their sexuality, their interest groups, and their families, but also with their identity as members of a particular ethnic group (1998, p.241). Thus, Latino middle school students are in the beginning stages of finding out who they are: who they are as students and future workers; who they are in terms of their sexuality and gender; and who they are as Latinos, each with their own definition; and who they are in terms of their present and future families. I agree with Benjamin when he asserts that "the curriculum rarely addresses the identity needs of minority adolescents" (1998, p. 246). To me this is a crucial element in planning curriculum for middle school students.

Further, from a psychosocial viewpoint, it is recognized that while achievement of independence is an important part of adolescence, young people continue to need a close and supportive relationship with their families (Santrock, 1993; Swanson et al, 1998). In

turn, there is also an acknowledgement of the role that culture plays in the move toward autonomy (Erickson, 1963; Santrock, 1993).

In many Latino families, regardless of socioeconomic status, the extended family is a reality, and thus, adolescents have relationships with several adults rather than just their parents. Another common trait, especially among those who are poorer and come from more rural backgrounds is the primacy of family as a unit (Benjamin, 1993; Delgado-Gaitan, 1991; Nieto, 2000; Hidalgo, 1992). Heyck (1994) emphasizes this point by stating, “Though the Latino family is under great pressure today-- generational, cultural, and economic—it still represents the most basic source of cultural values for Latinos in the U.S. and their major source of strength” (p. 19).

Similarly, Carola and Marcelo Suarez-Orozco (1995) found that their qualitative research suggests that Latinos see the family as the single most important aspect of their lives. For example, in response to the statement, “In life, family is the most important thing,” 92% of Mexicans and immigrants and 86% of second generation Latino youths responded “yes,” while only 74% of white American adolescents agreed with that statement.

Hidalgo (1992) suggests that because of the importance of family, it is important for educators to understand the kinds of values instilled by the home culture. In her study commissioned by the Center on Families, Communities, and Schools, she found the following three salient values among Puerto Ricans, in particular: *respeto*, or respect. Respect refers to respect for one another’s human dignity and is expected in all interactions with others; *dignidad*, or personal dignity which comes from fulfilling your role in life, not from material status; and, finally, reciprocity, which refers to a concern

about closeness and caring about others. One is expected to reciprocate kindness and it is expected among family members and neighbors.

Listening to student voices

Just as educators need to be cognizant about Latino family values, it is equally imperative to listen to student voices. According to Nieto (1994), few studies have addressed the perceptions of Latino youth as they pertain to their American schooling experience, or their thinking, their attitudes, and their beliefs about school. Torres-Guzman and Thorne (2000) likewise believe that studies investigating the voices of Latino students are critical to educational reform and restructuring schools. Latino voices may also provide insight into the structures that perpetuate the underachievement and school failure found within Latino communities. This belief led to their study of an alternative bilingual/bicultural high school in a poor urban neighborhood where the drop-out rate was 60-65%. They interviewed fifteen students over the period of one year about their perceptions of the schooling experiences. The following major issues emerged from these interviews:

- Importance of student-teacher relationship emerged as a salient issue in their schooling experience. There was desire for open communication.
- Teacher caring was also associated with students' willingness to learn and put more effort into their work.
- Caring was a central value expressed by all students. Good teachers were caring, showed respect, and were supportive of them.
- A sense of humor and openness is important to a relaxed, familial atmosphere in the classroom.

- Teacher caring was shown by valuing the language and culture of their students. The students wanted more inclusion of their culture and language in the curriculum and a desire for teachers to learn about their culture.

The role of teachers

As discussed above, the role of teachers is critical to the school success of Latino students. Hidalgo (1992) asserts that because of the importance of valuing interpersonal relationships within Latino culture, the relationship between the teacher and Puerto Rican student becomes vital to the educational achievement of the student. Nieto (1999) agrees, “Latino youngsters explicitly mention ‘love’ as the factor that can make or break their experiences in school” (p. 68).

Chavez (1997) when writing about achieving equity for Latino students, declared that teachers must play a central role in developing relationships with their students that is rooted in respect, dignity, and high expectations. He declares, “In essence, the Latino learner should be at the center of learning through a responsive pedagogy that promotes academic learning, social responsibility, and a proactive engagement by the politics of identity” (p. 9).

Similarly, Romo and Falbo (1996) conducted a three-year study of Mexican origin students who were labeled “at risk” of dropping out by a school district. The data from this study again suggest the primacy of the teacher/student relationship. Likewise, Lucas (1993) stated that successful teachers of Latino students are willing to try innovative practices and make their teaching culturally relevant. They also encourage students to use their native language as needed for communication and interaction about course

content among students and between themselves and students. Finally, and most importantly, they recognize student success overtly and frequently.

Salient curriculum features

Besides the importance of teacher/student relationships, there are research studies that examine curriculum design that supports the academic achievement of Latino students (Huerta-Macias, 1998; Mercado, 1993; Garcia, 1993; Lockwood & Secada, 2000). The common features of these curriculum designs are that they are student-centered, involve student choice, are project centered, and include collaborative learning projects.

For example, Mercado and Moll (2000) engaged a Grade 6 bilingual class in an ethnographic research project. The purpose of this study was to understand and address the reading achievement of students in one particular sixth grade class. Their approach was to enlist students as collaborators in the construction of the curriculum and to include students' home communities in their ethnographic research. Among the findings of this study was that students made significant gains on standardized reading tests within a seven month period. As students used literacy for real purposes, they were able to engage in multiple discourses, including the discourse of researchers. They also learned to recognize and value the knowledge found in their own homes as they collaborated with their parents on their research. One case study was especially striking. In answer to the question, "How has research helped you to be a better learner?", Indio (the student) replied, "Research has helped me find my true inside... the one that cares" (p.126). Thus, students such as Indio created new identities as learners primarily through the uses of writing, which included field notes, reflections, letters, reports, and presentations.

Van Manen (1990) confirms how research on lived experiences can affect identity formation. He writes, “Research is the work of writing, but in writing, the writer...produces more than text. The writer produces himself or herself.... Writing is a kind of self-making or forming” (p. 126).

Mercado (1993) agrees with the importance of collaborative research that emphasizes writing. She states that:

Most importantly, literacy has been an important means of coming to understand while at the same time affirming and transforming personal, ethnic, and linguistic identities. It is in the process of writing to affirm who we are and writing to share what we do with others that we all experience using a wider range of written communication and with greater intensity than any of us is used to. (p. 1)

Mercado initiated her study to examine how participation in an activity-based program influenced writing among young adolescent students who were predominately bilingual Latinos. Students in this project used the literacy practices of ethnographic researchers to learn about topics of personal interest. Sixth graders from one teacher’s class were chosen for this study over a span of three years. The in-depth analysis was based on five case studies.

Several major themes emerged from this project: 1) the uses of power literacies in inner city schools; 2) the use of literacy in the community; 3) having something to say and wanting to write; 4) changes in writing; and 5) what writing reveals about biliterate students. Because of the nature of research-related practices, these kinds of literary discourses have a powerful potential to help students become better students/learners. She states emphatically, “Not only do students gain a new perspective on the importance and utility of writing, but they also begin to see themselves as writers and to understand

that writing is a social responsibility for individuals who come from marginalized communities” (1993, p. 26).

Most recently, Freeman and Freeman (2002) have examined the research of effective practices for adolescent learners and confirm the findings of the researchers discussed above. They claim that older learners need to develop academic content knowledge and proficiency in the academic register of English. For example, Collier (1995) points out that school success depends on students’ developing cognitive, academic, and language proficiency. These three areas are interrelated in the following ways: cognitive development results from solving problems in or out of school; academic development involves problem solving during content-area studies; and linguistic development enables students to use academic language to engage in these problem solving activities (as cited in Freeman & Freeman, p. 61).

Furthermore, Gersten and Jimenez (1994) have reviewed research in the fields of cognitive strategies, approaches to teaching literature, programs in bilingual education and second-language acquisition to develop specific suggestions for English learners. They identify eight constructs of effective instruction that include challenge, involvement, success, scaffolding, mediation or feedback, collaborative/cooperative learning, techniques for sheltered English instruction, and respect for cultural diversity. Freeman and Freeman see these constructs as interacting and overlapping with each other to provide successful experiences for Latino students (p. 102).

Drawing on the work of Gersten and Jimenez, Freeman and Freeman also cite the work of E. Garcia (1991, 1999), and a longitudinal study on bilingual education by Ramirez (1991) and Saunders, O’Brien, Lennon, and McLean (1999), who identify four

theoretical premises to promote first- and second-language acquisition and academic achievement. These four premises are as follows:

- **Challenge:** Consistently challenge students academically.
- **Comprehensiveness:** Address both meaning and skills, promote both higher level thinking skills and practice, and provide complimentary portions of student and teacher centeredness.
- **Continuity:** Achieve continuity in curriculum as students move from Spanish to English language arts.
- **Connections:** Build upon and make explicit the connections between students' existing knowledge and experiences and the academic curriculum to be learned (Freeman and Freeman, 2002, p. 103).

Thus, an important concept to be learned from these premises and studies is that even though students are limited in their English proficiency, it does not mean that they are limited in their thinking ability. They must be pushed to engage with difficult ideas. In fact, Valdes (2001) found that the curriculum given to the English learners she studied was neither challenging nor comprehensive, and therefore, students were not prepared to enter mainstream classes. Valdes stresses the importance of giving students access to the curriculum while they are learning English. In other words, give them the academic English they need to study grade level-appropriate coursework.

Conclusion

In this research study, the literature reviewed has provided the framework for designing a qualitative study where Eighth Grade ESL students were conducting research on a topic of their choice from October-May of 2002. In particular, the complexity of

identity formation in adolescent second language learners has been addressed from two perspectives: the psychological and cultural. Within the psychological perspectives, Erickson's psychosocial theory, Spencer's and Van Manen's phenomenological stance, and Penuel and Wertsch's integration of Erickson and Vygotsky and its effect on identity formation within a sociocultural framework have been discussed. These psychological perspectives are seen as particularly relevant to the identity formation of adolescent second language learners. Furthermore, the role of culture is viewed as interdependent to the psychological perspectives and is considered as essential to the formation of a coherent identity.

In addition, Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and its influences on literacy development, identity formation, and second language acquisition theories have been examined. These three elements are considered critical in this dissertation study because they provide connections among the three sections of the literature review. In particular, I understand the ZPD as best explained as the zone in which an individual is able to achieve more with help than one can achieve alone. Further, I believe, like Wells (2000), that because the whole person is involved in joint activity, there are identity-forming effects of this assistance.

Moreover, Vygotskian approaches to second language acquisition have been explored. Of significant importance is Vygotsky's paper "The Question of Multilingualism in Childhood" (1935), which proposes a different approach to the understanding of bilingualism. In this paper, Vygotsky claims that "the native and foreign language have between them a great deal in common.... [T]hey are internally united" (as cited in John-Steiner, p. 349). Thus, adolescents learning a second language

depend on the internal structures of their native language in order to transfer their competencies to the learning of English. Cummins refers to this knowledge as “a common underlying proficiency” (1989).

Lastly, second language acquisition theories have been reviewed in light of their sociocultural stance as well as their connection to Vygotskian perspectives on literacy. Of particular importance to this dissertation is Cummins (1996) assertion that instruction should be aimed at a context-embedded, cognitively demanding level. He extends Krashen’s comprehensible input theory to include the term “communicative interaction” which is a more active term. Likewise, he further defines Vygotsky’s ZPD as the interpersonal space where minds meet and new understandings can arise through collaborative interaction and inquiry. He further believes that teacher-students’ collaboration in the construction of knowledge will operate effectively only in contexts where student identities are being affirmed (p. 26).

I believe that practice follows theory, as especially related to effective practices for Latino students. It is important to develop a learning context that is multiculturally sensitive and where Latinos’ values of respect, dignity, and reciprocity are acknowledged. The primacy of family as a unit is also emphasized.

Besides the importance of family, listening to student voices is recognized as having an impact on instruction, in particular when developing caring relationships with teachers. This kind of caring and support simulates the familial support of Latino families.

Embedded in effective curriculum practices are the above two constructs. The literature reviewed emphasized student-centered, student choice, project-centered and collaborative learning projects.

The theories and practices discussed in this literature review are the foundation for the design and implementation of this dissertation study.

Chapter 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter will first review the literature of teacher research studies, and then discuss the rationale for choosing a qualitative method of design. The chapter continues to describe in detail the following: my site selection and entry into the field, reasons for choosing this particular class for research, temporal and emotional investment in the field, and a thick description of the participants in this study. The chapter concludes with my method of analysis including the multiple methods of data collection, and finally my methodology of coding the data and choosing the generative themes that provide the framework of analysis.

Teacher Research Study

Because of my philosophical stance as a reflective practitioner, I have been conducting teacher research in my classroom for the past ten years. I have been informed in my teaching by my students, because I believe in the validity of their voices. My ESL students' end-of-year evaluations inform my practice for the following school year. Moreover, as the Director of a Magnet School Writing Program in Lawrence, MA, I collected data from my Latino students on the importance of writing in their lives; I used videotapes, surveys, interviews, and questionnaires to give me in-depth data about my students' writing lives. Most important, I was interested in my students' perspectives.

Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1993) define teacher research as “systematic, intentional inquiry by teachers about their own school and classroom work” (p. 24). By inquiry they suggest that teacher research “stems from or generates questions and reflects

teachers' desires to make sense of their experiences—to adapt a learning stance or openness toward classroom life” (p. 24).

Though people like John Dewey were already talking about the importance of teacher inquiry, historically, teacher research as a movement is more than a decade old (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, (1999). One group of writings was published by the National Council of Teachers of English and Heinemann/Boynton/Cook, specializing in books about language, learning, and literacy written by and for teachers (Graves, 1983; Calkins, 1986; Atwell, 1987; Bissex & Bullock, 1987). This work was grounded in the paradigm shift in researching, teaching, and assessing writing that developed during the 1970's and 1980's. This paradigm shift centered around the view of a teacher as a knower and thinker, or what Ann Berthoff (1987) called “RE-searcher,” who did not need more “findings” from university-based researchers, but more dialogue with other teachers that would generate theories grounded in practice”(as cited in Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, p. 15). Another conceptual framework that grounded teacher research was an ethnographic research tradition and a multi-disciplinary understanding of language, literacy, and pedagogy.

Rooted in this framework is the belief that teacher research is unique in that it can provide a “truly emic, or insider's perspective that makes visible the ways that students and teachers together construct knowledge and curriculum” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, p. 43). Further, teacher research is by its very nature context embedded. Zumalt (1982) makes a case that rather than laws about what works generically in classrooms, “we need insight into the particulars of how and why something works and for whom,

within the contexts of particular classrooms” (as cited in Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1990, p. 6).

Hubbard and Power have also been in the vanguard of teacher research. They have edited a journal, *Teacher Research: A Journal of Classroom Inquiry*, published by the University of Maine since 1993. In their recent work (1999), they state that there is a new sense of urgency about finding ways to show what happens when teachers seek the answers to questions about how new curriculum ideas work and base their teaching decisions on the data that they collect from their students. This new sense of urgency stems in large measure from the current emphasis on the standards movement and high-stakes testing.

Furthermore, Goswami and Stillman (1987) maintain that teachers are transformed when they actively engage in research in their classrooms, because they now become theorists, testing their assumptions and finding connections with practice. Teacher researchers also provide important data to university researchers by describing in detail the culture of their classrooms and how these classrooms work—teachers know their students and classrooms in ways that an outsider can not. Kincheloe (1991) has written explicitly about the critical stance of professional practice and of teacher research as a path to empowerment. According to Giroux (1988), this kind of empowerment can lead teachers to think and act like “transformative intellectuals” in their work environments.

This is especially true in the area of bilingual research, where teachers have often felt devalued and criticized for their practices because of the lack of societal support (Flor Ada, 1986). Nevarez-LaTorre (1999) maintains that there is both a lack of teacher research in bilingual classrooms, and also a growing need for teacher research in

linguistically diverse settings, given the changing population trends in urban centers. She writes:

These trends demand comprehensive and innovative educational approaches that will promote knowledge produced by teachers to facilitate academic success for all students and build the understanding about effective practice in bilingual education settings. The involvement in teacher research by practitioners who work with linguistically diverse students is one way to respond to the demands brought forth by such changing demands. (1999, p. 456)

In a two year study with bilingual teachers in an urban school district, Nevarez-La Torre worked with five teachers, a faculty member and doctoral student from a university in a Northeast urban center. These teachers worked within a group called The Bilingual Teachers' Research Forum. Within this setting, teachers met regularly to explore teaching practices and to discuss the collaborative process of doing research. As a result of this Forum, teachers began to see themselves as generators of knowledge. One teacher, Magda, writes:

The question of bilingual education is a highly political question for which I feel passionately about. When we are arguing [defending bilingual education] we need to take hold of the data. We need to argue with the research in our hands. We need to say, 'because research demonstrates, because it has been found.... [I]t is not because I say so or I feel strongly for our children but because I have these data.' (1999, p. 466)

Nevarez-La Torre concludes that The Forum gave teachers a voice, and suggests that teacher research is a tool for producing knowledge and generating theory. It promoted the role of a group of bilingual and ESL teachers as generators of knowledge. Another implication of this study was that it promoted interaction with practitioners outside bilingual classrooms and thus became a tool for professional development. Therefore, this study supports the notion that teacher-based research in linguistically

diverse settings may be used to address the double isolation many teachers feel, as well as a strategy to develop dialogue among ESL, bilingual teachers, and teachers who work with linguistically diverse students in all-English classrooms. I believe that this kind of work is especially important in light of the English-Only and English immersion trends that have been sweeping the United States during the last five years.

Qualitative Research Design

This teacher research study uses qualitative methods of analysis. Because my overarching interest is students' perceptions of themselves as readers, writers, and researchers vis-à-vis a classroom engaged in collaborative inquiry researching topics of their own interest, I wanted to describe the particulars of this classroom and these students as they research a topic of their own choice over an academic year. I was interested in hearing my students' voices as they reflected on their reading/writing process to me. I was interested in analyzing the culture by writing an ethnography of this classroom.¹

By choosing to write an ethnography, which Fetterman defines as “the art and science of describing a group or culture” (1989, p. 11), I was conscious that ethnographers write about the daily lives of people. In this case, I was interested in describing the lives of my students as they engaged in a research project over a year. An ethnographic research design embraces a multicultural perspective because it accepts multiple realities. Fetterman notes further that “People act on their individual perceptions, and those actions have real consequences—thus the subjective reality each individual sees is no less real than an objectively defined and measured reality” (1989, p. 15).

¹ Fetterman defines ethnography as the “art and science of describing a group or culture” (1989, p.11).

This ethnographic research aims at studying my ESL students multiple perspectives as they became researchers through the writing/ reading/research process. My stance, then, as a researcher is one based on inductive theory where I have made few explicit assumptions about sets of relationships, though as a classroom teacher, I do, of course, live with my own growing set of assumptions (described in Chapters Two and Three) about how my students learn.

Qualitative research concerns itself with finding answers to questions as they emerge from the data that is collected from the participants. Sherman and Webb summarize qualitative research in this way: “qualitative implies a direct concern with experience as it is ‘lived’ or ‘felt’ or ‘undergone’ Qualitative research, then, has the aim of understanding experience as nearly as possible as its participants feel it or live it” (1988, p. 7).

Therefore, qualitative research is an interactive process in which the persons studied teach the researcher about their lives (Ely, 1998, p. 4). Nothing is assumed or taken for granted. Thus, theories are generated through inductive strategies that build from the patterns that emerge from the data. Generating theories from data means that most hypotheses not only come from the data, but are systematically worked out in relation to the data during the course of the research. This is commonly known as a grounded theory approach (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, pp. 5-6).

Further, I chose a qualitative research design because it was best suited to my purposes of understanding the meanings as perceived by participants in this study, of the research class they were involved in and their accounts of this experience. I wanted to understand the influence that this context had on their actions, as literacy users, as

researchers, as young people in the process of forming their identities. I was primarily interested in studying the research/writing process of these students. Qualitative research is more interested in process than outcomes, although, as Maxwell states, “This does not mean that qualitative research is unconcerned with outcomes...a major strength of qualitative research is in getting at the processes that led to these outcomes, processes that experimental and survey research are often poor at identifying” (1996, pp. 20-21). This dissertation seeks to understand the writing processes of adolescent ESL students in order to better understand the writing outcomes of each stage of the research process.

Moreover, I wanted my students’ voices to be heard telling their experiences during the research class. In her monograph about the importance of qualitative research in discovering insights about the uniqueness of individuals, Carini (1979) writes the following: “All persons are thinkers, dreamers, and see-ers of visions—to a greater or lesser degree—living and seeking beyond the mere facts of existence for a larger perspective. Each person lives the gift of love and the quest of being uniquely” (p. 7).

Site selection and entry into the field

I chose as the site of my research study, a community located west of Boston where I work as a middle school teacher. According to the 2000 U.S. Census, this largely middle class suburb has a population of about 67,000 with about 80% of the population classified racially as white and 11% classified as belonging to the Hispanic/Latino (of any race) category. This community is also known to have one of the largest Brazilian populations in the state of Massachusetts. The Brazilians are the newest wave of immigrants to this diverse community.

The school community in this suburb has responded to this influx of new immigrants with a well supported bilingual program. This includes a Portuguese and Spanish Bilingual Preschool Program; three elementary schools with a Spanish Bilingual Program, and two schools with a Portuguese Bilingual Program. At the secondary level, the Transitional Bilingual Program is located at two middle schools. The high school also has a Spanish and Portuguese Bilingual Program. The school system includes two schools with a Spanish Two-Way Bilingual Program that aims for bilingualism and language maintenance. In contrast, the Transitional Bilingual Program is designed to use the students' native language as a major resource for learning and for literacy development, while students also are receiving English as a Second Language Classes (ESL).

As stated in Chapter 1, I have been working at one of these middle schools for the past eight years, first as a literacy specialist, then as an ESL teacher, and now as a Bilingual Curriculum Specialist. I have been most interested in finding out more about the reading/writing processes of my Brazilian and Latino students, who comprise twenty-five percent of our student population.

Before collecting any data, I spoke to my principal, the Director of Bilingual Education, and the Director of Curriculum about my project. I was granted permission to conduct this research with all parties supportive of my research proposal. My next step was to choose my research class (At the time of my dissertation study, the IRB board gave the authority to waive IRB review to my Dissertation Chair, and mine was waived).

Choosing my research class

I chose an eighth grade class to work with because I knew that their

developmental level was such that they would be able to describe their metacognitive processes as they conducted their research projects. I also wanted to choose a class that was partially mainstreamed in English, so that their English skills would be fairly well developed. I believed that they would be able to move now into the realm of academic discourse. For our school, this meant an ESL IV class that was mainstreamed in Science and Math, but still took a native language class, as well as an ESL Language Arts class and an ESL Social Studies Class.

Our middle school bilingual program is based on a traditional Transitional Bilingual Model where students in ESL I and ESL II take academic content classes in their native language while taking a ninety minute block of ESL classes. When progressing to ESL III, students then take ESL content classes, a native language class, and a ninety minute block of ESL classes. By the time students are in ESL IV classes they are ready to be partially mainstreamed in math and science while taking ESL classes in social studies and language arts. They also take a native language class to support their language development. In ESL V they are mainstreamed in all classes and receive one ESL class that supports their vocabulary and writing development.

Students are moved to the next levels of ESL by demonstrating competence in the English skills that were developed by the school system as a method of placement according to benchmarks (see Appendix A for ESL Benchmarks). Teachers meet and discuss each student's placement according to demonstrated class work and motivation to move ahead in English. Students' ability in their native language is also considered. It is interesting to note that even though all my participating students were in ESL IV, their English skills varied from strong to weak, especially in written English. Even though all

our students (except one) were literate in their native language, their level of expertise in their native language varied as well.

The Grade 8 ESL class teacher, Ms. Hamilton,² agreed to be a cooperating teacher in this project. A new teacher to our school, but not to ESL teaching, Ms. Hamilton was eager to have her class participate in an innovative curriculum. Her schedule was also such that she had a triple block (105 minutes) twice every six day cycle, which gave her the time to become involved in an inquiry-based project.

I introduced the project to Ms. Hamilton's class and then gave them the Consent Form, which I had translated into Portuguese and Spanish (see Appendix A for examples of consent forms).

Temporal and emotional investment in the field

I began this inquiry in October 2001 and continued through June 2002. I spent an average of 105 minutes twice every six day cycle in the classroom and at other sites such as the computer lab and the library. Moreover, as I was also a Grade 8 homeroom teacher, I had the opportunity to have many informal conversations that certainly added to my data.

I was emotionally invested in both my ESL teaching and my students. I needed to confront those biases head on so they would not cloud my objectivity as I looked at their participation in this research project. I needed to be constantly aware not to interject my own beliefs into my questioning and probing. I reminded myself to ask students to "tell me more" so I could hear their stories. Fetterman (1989) has stated that biases can serve both positive and negative functions. Controlled, they can focus and limit the research

² All names of participants in this dissertation are pseudonyms.

effort. Additional quality controls such “triangulation, contextualization, and a non-judgmental orientation place a check on the negative influence of bias” (pp. 11-12).

To provide for triangulation in my study, I included multiple methods of data collection, which are enumerated later in this chapter. I collected data from multiple formats such as questionnaires, interviews, and reflections to further ensure the validity of my research. This would also provide me the means to generate themes across all data. This study is therefore context-embedded as it describes one particular ESL class in the context of collaborative reading, writing, and researching individual self-chosen projects in a research class.

Description of participants in the study

As the teacher researcher in this study I was also a participant observer. Patton (1990) claims that participant observation is the most comprehensive of all types of research strategies because one can both observe the events taking place and then reflect upon the events at a later time. As the participant observer, I designed all the lessons and rubrics for the research class and taught the class using samples of my own academic research writing as models for teaching. I also kept field notes and wrote reflections from these field notes after every class. In addition, I kept a notebook of all lessons with sample graphic organizers and writing models.

Ms. Hamilton, the Grade 8 ESL IV teacher, had ten years of ESL teaching experience. However, this was her first year teaching in the middle school. Her previous experience was at the college level. She had also been a Fulbright Scholar to Brazil, where she participated in a teacher exchange program in northeast Brazil. This experience provided her with insights about Brazilian cultural values, which proved to be

invaluable in helping her understand the Brazilian students. In her role as my cooperating teacher, she kept field notes as I taught a lesson and captured many student conversations that I could not capture because I was teaching. The teacher reflections used in the analysis of the data incorporated both of our observations. She also carried through assignments with the students in our research class. Her willingness to incorporate research into her language arts curriculum and grading process helped our students stay focused all year. The research class work always counted as a certain percentage of their language arts grade. By the end of the year, research was counted as seventy-five percent of the language arts grade. She also became my trusted colleague as we shared our observations and concerns about students.

Thus, data was collected from a core group of students. I chose four Brazilian students to be my case studies because little research had been done with a Brazilian population. The four case study students were Roberto, Mario, Gilda, and Mariela; their prominent voices will be heard throughout the narrative of the data analysis. I collected the most data from these students, including data from all their writing throughout the project and from three forty-five minute interviews with each.

The other prominent voices in the narrative belong to the students with whom I chose to do focus interviews. The purpose of a focus interview is to get high-quality data in a social context where participants can think about their views in the context of the views of others (Patton, 1990). I wanted to collect more data from these students so I could get a “thick”(Patton, 1990) description of the entire class. Since I wanted to describe this class at work, I needed to hear as many voices as I could through interviews.

These students were interviewed twice each in groups of four: Juan, Miguel, Nadia, and Felicia; Melina, Carolina, Darlana, and Berndt.

The entire class consisted of fifteen students beginning in October, but by the end of April only eleven students were left. Pablo had to move in the middle of October, Francisca left for Brazil in December, Nadia had to move at the end of April, and Tania left after April vacation because of a serious car accident.

The class consisted of nine girls, eight of whom were Brazilian and one Moroccan; and six boys, two Brazilian, three Latino, and one German. As stated earlier, all participant names in this study are pseudonyms. Table 1 gives a summary of student data. Students whose names appear in boldface type are the Case Study informants and the students whose names appear in italics are the focus group interview informants.

Table 1 is followed by a detailed description of each of the participants.

Table 3.1: Student Participants

| <u>Name</u> | <u>Age</u> | <u>Native Language</u> | <u>Native Country</u> | <u>Years in the U.S.</u> | <u>Parents' Education</u> |
|-----------------|------------|------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Roberto | 14 | Portuguese | Brazil | 2 years | 4 th & 8 th Gr. |
| Mario | 15 | Portuguese | Brazil | 2 years | 8 th Gr. |
| Gilda | 14 | Portuguese | Brazil | 2 years | High School & College |
| Mariela | 14 | Portuguese | Brazil | 4 years | High School |
| <i>Juan</i> | 14 | Spanish | Puerto Rico | 3 years | High School |
| <i>Miguel</i> | 14 | Spanish | El Salvador | 4 years | 9 th Gr. |
| <i>Melina</i> | 14 | Portuguese | Brazil | 6 years | High School |
| <i>Nadia</i> | 14 | French | Morocco | 3 years | Unknown |
| <i>Carolina</i> | 15 | Portuguese | Brazil | 1 year | Unknown |
| Tania | 14 | Portuguese | Brazil | 1 year | High School |
| <i>Darlana</i> | 14 | Portuguese | Brazil | 2 years | 9 th Gr. |
| <i>Felicia</i> | 14 | Portuguese | Brazil | 2 years | Unknown |
| Francesca | 14 | Portuguese | Brazil | 2 years | High School |
| <i>Berndt</i> | 14 | German | Germany | 1 year | Unknown |
| Pablo | 14 | Spanish | Puerto Rico | 4 years | Unknown |

Description of participants in the study

a. Roberto At the time of this study, Roberto was fourteen years old. His ethnic background is Brazilian on his mother's side and Japanese on his father's side. He is of medium height with Asian brown eyes and light skin. He came from Sao Paulo, Brazil

one year before the study began, so this was his second year in the United States. He went to public school in Brazil where he had no English classes. He comes from a working class background; his mother finished the eighth grade and his father completed four years of formal schooling. Roberto's father died when he was seven. When he entered my class, he lived with his mother, her boyfriend, and his two older sisters.

According to the Brazilian social worker, Roberto's home life was filled with turmoil, and the Division of Social Services had been called more than once to intervene in difficult family issues. Roberto often came to school with a sullen face and argumentative attitude. His school day reflected the kind of day he had at home the night before. Despite this, Roberto was a curious, enthusiastic student, who loved history, and who we believed was gifted because of his exceptional skill with languages and his avid reading of encyclopedias. His best friends in the class were Mario and Berndt. They often fooled around in class, and more often than not they shared their enthusiasm for all things military. Roberto was a very private student who kept emotional distance from his teachers, but could be won over with humor, patience, and a trust in his intelligence.

His end of the year report card indicated a mixture of B's and C's. He was able to bring a D- in Science in the first trimester up to a C by faithfully attending an after school homework club that Ms. Hamilton instituted in the middle of the year. His absentee rate shows only three absences during the last trimester with an overall total of thirteen during the school year. His few absences in the last trimester might be because of his interest in writing the final draft of his research project. He was never absent during research days.

He was literate in his first language, Portuguese, though he claimed that his writing was better in English. Portuguese and English were spoken in his home.

b. Mario Mario was fifteen years old when the study began and had arrived in the United States two years before. He came from Bahia, Brazil, with his mother, who had an eighth grade education and worked as a housekeeper in the United States. He had gone to public school in Brazil where he had no English classes. He had two younger siblings.

Mario is a dark tanned young man of medium height. He has vibrant, sparkling brown eyes, a smile which lit up his face, and a sophisticated sense of humor. He was also proud of his arm muscles because he worked out through martial arts. Mario had an after-school job at a grocery store and went to martial arts classes at least twice a week.

His end of the year report card showed a mixture of A's and B's with his only C+ being in Portuguese Language Arts. He had a total of fourteen absences for the school year with only two absences in the last trimester when he was actively involved in drafting his final research project and was seldom absent during research days.

He was literate in Portuguese though he also claimed that his written English was better than his written Portuguese. Portuguese and some English were spoken in the home.

c. Gilda Gilda was fourteen years old when the study began, but turned fifteen in May of the year of research. She arrived in this country two years before from Vitoria, Espirito Santo, Brazil. Her mother finished high school and was a hair-dresser in this country and her stepfather had finished college in Brazil but was now working in construction. Her parents spoke little English. She has two young step-siblings.

Gilda is a beautiful girl with long, dark hair, dark brown eyes, and light skin. She was very mature for her age and was the most conscientious of all our students. She was

quiet and attentive in class, but she was never afraid to ask a question if she wanted to find something out. She was also a devout fundamentalist Baptist.

Gilda's end of the year report card revealed all A's with only two B's in Science and Math. She stayed after school to bring up her C's in Science and Math to B's. She had a total of thirteen absences during the school year; however, in the last trimester she only missed four classes

Gilda went to public school in Brazil where she had three years of English. She was the most literate in both spoken and written Portuguese of all my students and excelled in her Portuguese Language Arts class. At the Grade 8 Awards Assembly she won the Portuguese Language Arts Award. Portuguese was spoken in her home.

d. Mariela Mariela had been in this country for four years when she entered my class and had arrived in the United States when she was nine and a half years old. She came with her mother from Belem do Para, Brazil. She was an only child. Her mother finished high school and was a housekeeper in this country.

Mariela is a beautiful, petite girl with long, brown curly hair, and dark brown eyes. She is very slim and delicate looking and suffered from allergies which, in the year she was in my class, led to pneumonia. Mariela is outgoing and cheerful and always greeted me in the hall with a big smile. She was very social in class and often had to be told to focus on the task at hand. She has a breathy way of speaking and always spoke excitedly about new discoveries.

Mariela's final report card showed a mix of A's, B's and C's with a D in Science (which she brought up from an F) and a C- in Math. She struggled in these two mainstream classes even though she faithfully attended the after school help sessions.

Her total year absences was seven (during the time she had pneumonia). She had no absences during the final trimester.

Mariela was one of the least skilled in English in the class. Her written Portuguese was also very weak. However, she read fluently in Portuguese and preferred to speak Portuguese rather than English. She still had not gained confidence in her spoken English at the beginning of the year, but her confidence in both spoken and written English had improved by the end of the school year.

e. Juan Juan was fourteen years old at the time of this study and arrived in this country from Puerto Rico when he was eleven years old. He was taken away from his parents because of abuse and was living with his aunt, who had become his guardian. He has three siblings, two older, and another who is eleven years old that lives with him. His parents had finished high school. He attended public schools in Guayama, Puerto Rico.

He was literate in Spanish, though his Spanish skills were weak. I gave him an Analytical Reading Inventory in April for literacy issues and found huge gaps in his short term memory and vocabulary skills. I found that his retellings of short passages were devoid of detail and he often stated that he could not remember what he read. His vocabulary knowledge was very basic in both Spanish and English. He was struggling in his mainstream classes, but stayed many nights after school for help.

Juan is light skinned, with dark eyes and hair, and of slight build. A shy boy, he preferred to be with adults. In the classroom, he worked cooperatively with Nadia and Miguel. He always had a smile on his face and had a positive attitude, even though he often became overwhelmed with writing tasks.

f. Miguel Miguel was fourteen years old at the beginning of the school year, turning fifteen in March. He arrived in the United States four years before from El Salvador. His parents finished the ninth grade, and his father was a metal worker and his mother a tailor. He had two younger sisters who were both pre-school age.

Miguel was outgoing, sociable, and loved to be around adults. He stopped by my office every day to check in and be reassured about his research. He was curious and hard working, but his stubbornness in the area of accepting constructive criticism often led him into power struggles with his teachers. He liked to do things his own way, but when they didn't work out, he asked for help.

Miguel is tall and light-skinned with dark brown, shiny hair and deep brown eyes. His eyes were always sparkling with laughter and his energy boundless. He was the most avid researcher in the class, spending almost every day in the public library. He was active in our two multicultural after-school clubs, and at the end of the year he won the Vice-Principal's Award for Outstanding Personal Growth.

Miguel was literate in Spanish, though his written skills in both Spanish and English were weak in the beginning of the research. He demonstrated improvement in written English during the final drafting phase of the research project.

g. Melina Melina was fourteen years old at the time of this study, having arrived in this country six years before from Minas Gerais, Brazil. Her parents had a high school education and now worked as a housewife and a truck driver. She has four siblings who are older and one sibling who is six years old.

Melina has curly dark hair, brown eyes and is of medium build. She often had a sullen look on her face, but when she smiled her face lit up. She had a very dry sense of

humor and was sociable in class. The previous year, Melina had suffered from depression and had stayed back, but this year she was making good progress in all her classes, though she seldom worked to her potential.

She was literate in Portuguese and had well-developed English skills. Portuguese was spoken in her home, and she preferred to speak Portuguese with her friends.

h. Nadia Nadia was fourteen years old when this study began and had arrived in the United States from Morocco three years before. Her mother is Moroccan and her father English. She lived with her mother who is a restaurant worker. She has two older and two younger siblings.

Nadia was of medium build with tan skin, dark hair and brown eyes. She was outgoing, spoke out often in class, and had a great sense of humor. She was not particularly friendly with the Brazilian girls, though she and Mariela spoke in class. She and Juan often worked together. Nadia was very opinionated and articulate in her spoken English. Her written English skills were poor and she had great difficulty with spelling and with constructing coherent sentences. During this project, she became passionate about her topic of animal rights and became a vegetarian in the middle of the year.

Nadia was not literate in her native language, French. English was spoken in the home.

i. Carolina Carolina was fifteen years old at the time of this study, arriving in the United States one year before from Minas Gerais, Brazil. Her mother was a housekeeper and her father a restaurant worker. She has one younger brother who was in sixth grade in our school.

Carolina has light brown hair with brown eyes and fair skin. She is of medium height and was very conscious of her appearance. She dressed in the latest Brazilian fashion and had a steady boyfriend. She was quite shy and her best friend was Tania, both of whom were in my homeroom. She was always cooperative and willing to help others, and was a conscientious student. She entered our research class in November after the first trimester ended. She progressed from ESL III to ESL IV, showing that she had passed the benchmarks for development of English skills.

Carolina attended both private and public schools in Brazil and took no English classes. She was literate in Portuguese. Portuguese was spoken in the home and her parents spoke little English.

j. Tania Tania arrived in this country one year before, also coincidentally from Minas Gerais, Brazil. Her father graduated from high school and her mother from college. Her father presently is a restaurant worker and her mother a housekeeper. She has two older brothers.

Tania entered our class in November with Carolina. She had passed the benchmarks from ESL III to ESL IV. Tania was often sullen and did not work to her best potential until the beginning of February. She is of medium height, has shoulder length brown hair and brown eyes, with fair skin. She was very sociable in class and often had to be removed from her friends so she could do her work.

Tania attended private school in Brazil and took English classes. She was literate in Portuguese and Portuguese was spoken in her home.

Tania was in a serious automobile accident during April vacation and was in a coma for a month. She sustained head injuries but made a miraculous recovery, although she did not come back to school for the rest of the year.

k. Darlana Darlana was fourteen years old when this study began, arriving in the United States two years before, also from Minas Gerais, Brazil. Her parents did not finish high school. Her father worked as a painter and her mother cleaned houses. She has one younger sister.

Tall and thin with long brown hair and brown eyes, Darlana was very fashion conscious and wanted to become a model. She has a beautiful smile, but was often pouty and whiny in class. One of her common habits was flipping her hair and checking out her make-up. Her friends often made fun in a good-natured way about her carrying on with such airs of superiority.

Darlana attended public school in Brazil where she took two years of English. She was literate in Portuguese and Portuguese was spoken in her home. She was a conscientious student and wanted to do well in her grades.

l. Felicia Felicia was fourteen years old at the time of this study and had arrived in this country two years before from Minas Gerais, Brazil. Her mother worked as a housekeeper and her father at the regional newspaper company. She has two older siblings, ages nineteen and sixteen.

Felicia is tall and thin with dark blonde, curly hair, green eyes, and a golden tanned skin tone. She dressed in a fashionable Brazilian style, most often wearing tight pants and shirts. She was somewhat shy and immature and still talked about an imaginary friend to her friends and sometimes to her teachers as a friendly gesture of

teasing. Her best friends were Mariela and Melina with whom she was quite sociable in class.

Felicia attended public school in Brazil and was literate in Portuguese.

Portuguese was spoken in her home. Felicia's written English skills were weak and she was still gaining confidence in her spoken English ability.

m. Francesca When this study began, Francesca was fourteen years old, having arrived in the United States two years before from Minas Gerais, Brazil. Her father still lived in Brazil. Her parents both finished high school and her mother worked as a housekeeper and her father with computers. She has a younger sister who was seven months old.

Francesca is tall and mature for her age. She has long dark brown hair and brown eyes. She is shy and very conscientious about her schoolwork. She hardly spoke in class but listened attentively and concentrated on her work. She was good friends with Gilda. She wanted to become an eye doctor.

Francesca was literate in Portuguese, and attended public school in Brazil where she had some English classes. She left to return to Brazil in December.

n. Berndt Berndt was fourteen years old when this study began and had arrived in this country one year before from Kiel, Germany. His father worked as a translator and his mother in the home. He has three younger sisters.

Berndt is tall and strongly built. He has light brown hair and blue eyes and liked to wear his hair with a lot of gel which made his hair stick straight up. He is outgoing and loved to fool around with Roberto and Mario. Of the boys, he was the least mature

and least invested in his schoolwork. In the course of the year, he became fascinated with Brazilian culture and stated that he would like to visit Brazil some day.

Berndt was literate in German. He had attended public schools in Germany where he had taken two years of English. His spoken English was quite good but his written English was still weak

o. Pablo Pablo arrived in the United States four years ago from Guayama, Puerto Rico. He was fourteen years old at the time of this study. His mother is Puerto Rican and literate in English, and his father is Colombian and speaks mostly Spanish. Besides his parents, he lived with his grandmother, two sisters, and one brother. His mother worked at Kentucky Fried Chicken and his father at T J MAX.

Pablo is small of stature with light brown hair and brown eyes. He was a serious student and was quiet and attentive in class. He was good friends with Juan. He wanted to excel in all his classes.

Pablo attended public school in Puerto Rico where he studied English. He was literate in Spanish and his English skills were quite well developed. He moved to another community in the middle of October, where his parents had bought a house.

Multiple methods of data collection

The data for the dissertation was collected from: a) demographic data obtained through a questionnaire and an audiotaped interview with the school's Brazilian social worker; b) student questionnaires and reflections; c) teacher-researcher reflections; d) cooperating teacher questionnaire; e) field notes by both teacher-researcher and cooperating teacher; f) audiotaped interviews and transcriptions of students; and g) collection of student writing throughout their research/writing process.

Demographic data

I collected demographic data to access knowledge about the cultural, linguistic, educational and economic background of our student and parent population. The data was collected from three sources: statistics from the school system records, a cultural linguistic questionnaire administered to my research class, and an interview with the Brazilian social worker to find out her insights about the qualities of Brazilian culture she had observed in our district.

According to the school system records we had 1,500 bilingual students who spoke more than seventy languages, with the largest number being Spanish and Portuguese. Our middle school's total enrollment was 980 students with 175 students enrolled in the Transitional Bilingual Program. The two largest groups were Spanish speakers and Brazilian Portuguese speakers, and our middle school offered the Spanish and Portuguese native language programs. Students from low-incidence populations went to another middle school, and a third middle school housed the two-way Spanish bilingual program. Forty-three percent of our bilingual population was Brazilian Portuguese and fifty-five percent was Latino, with the largest population coming from Puerto Rico; 61.7% of all our students were eligible for free or reduced lunch.

I took the following demographic averages of my research class from the data listed in the Cultural-Linguistic Questionnaire that I adapted from Cloud (1991). (See Appendix A.) This data gave me an overview of my students' cultural backgrounds: the average age of the students was 14.5 years old; the average number of years in the United States was 2.7 years; the average time in previous of ESL classes was three years.

All the parents came from working class backgrounds except for Berndt's father who worked as a translator. The majority of the women worked as housekeepers and the majority of the men worked in the restaurant business. The average number of years that the parents attended school was completion of the ninth grade. The majority of the students in the class were from Brazil with a total of ten students from Brazil, three from other Latin American countries, one from Germany, and one from Morocco.

Because I wanted to find out more about the specific Brazilian cultural values of my students and their families, I interviewed the Brazilian school social worker, Raphaela. According to Raphaela, the economic status of most Brazilians coming to our community was from an urban, blue-collar background, and the majority of our students came from Minas Gerais, a state in the south central part of Brazil. In her experience, she found that these families came to the United States for the main purpose of making money, not for educational opportunity. She stated that, in fact, the Brazilian parents to whom she spoke focused on working to accumulate money. They wanted to return to Brazil to retire. They did not have the expectation that their children would go to college, but rather that they would go to work and help their families. Thus, more importance was given to students acquiring a trade than to receiving a college education.

Family was the most important social value, along with the importance of friends. Books were rarely bought, and TV was more important than reading. Raphaela said that the Brazilians in the school community were "addicted" to *Globo Mundo*, a Brazilian television station, and most families had cable for this reason.

Raphaela also stated that a sharing of schoolwork with working class parents by children was uncommon; an interest in people was valued, not knowledge for its own

sake. Thus, students rarely brought home schoolwork, even though most parents were supportive of their children's education. However, they seemed to be more concerned with their children's behavior than their grades.

Raphaela also mentioned that forming personal relationships with teachers was valued by the community. They expected unconditional love of their children by the teachers. Brazilian students also wanted this personal acceptance by their teachers, but, too, they wanted to be challenged by unusual projects. Public displays of affection such as hugs and kisses on cheeks were very common, and this showed an acceptance of an outsider into the Brazilian community. If teachers didn't smile or joke with their students, they were considered to be unfriendly or even "racist."

Gender inequality is still very common in this Brazilian working class community. Women were expected to get married and raise a family. Men were given more opportunities, and adolescent boys would work after school both to help out their families and to save money for a car. Status symbols were considered important. Thus, women had to be especially strong-willed to pursue a college education.

Raphaela stated that as Brazilian students became more acculturated, there was more of a conflict between family and school values. Brazilian parents were especially hesitant about sending their children to American colleges because of what they had heard about coed dormitories. Many parents, in fact, moved back to Brazil before their children could attend college in the United States.

Table 3.2: Summary of Demographic Data

| Middle School Population | Average Age of Students | Average Years in The U.S. | Average Number of ESL Classes | Parents' Economic Class | Majority of Parents' Jobs | Average Years of Parents' Schooling |
|---|-------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|
| Total: 980 students; Bilingual Students: 175 (43% Brazilian; 55% Latino) | 14 ½ years old | 2.7 years | 3 years | Working Class | Women: House-keeper Men: Restaurant workers | 9 years |

Questionnaires

I gave students one questionnaire in October at the beginning of the project and one questionnaire at the end of the project in May. My purpose in giving the first questionnaire was to find out what students knew about being researchers. The last questionnaire was a typed question that aimed at finding out what students knew about being researchers by the end of the project and what they thought they had learned by doing this project (see Appendix B for these protocols). These were later coded for common patterns. In Section 6, I explain further the meaning of coding and the steps I took in coding my data.

Student reflections

I asked students to answer reflection questions after each new learning task, so I could find out what they thought about their learning at each stage of the research/writing process. They answered a total of thirteen reflection questions. I typed and coded their answers for a total of fifteen typed pages. (See Appendix B for a listing of reflection questions.)

Teacher reflections

After each class I typed up my personal thoughts about what I had observed that day. I also kept track of each day's lesson, conversations, and questions I had about students or curriculum. I kept these reflections and the lessons in a research binder similar to my students' binders. In the end, these pages totaled seventy-seven single-spaced typed pages. These pages were also coded for common themes. (See Appendix C for a sample reflection page.)

Field notes

During each class, both my cooperating practitioner and I took field notes from our observations of lessons and students' interactions. Field notes are notes which are based upon the observations of the participant observers and are recorded in notebooks. I spoke with my cooperating teacher about the importance of both of us taking accurate field notes as these notes would record important observational data which would serve as a basis for my initial analysis of classroom data. Most important, I needed Ms. Hamilton to record student conversations and events when I was teaching the class. I recorded my observations and student conversations as I circulated among students during the ninety-minute block. Then, I used both sets of field notes to write my nightly reflections, which recorded deeper thinking and questioning about what I read in the field notes. In the end, these field notes totaled 120 pages. (See Appendix C for a sample page of field notes.)

Interviews

I used the standard open-ended interviewing protocol (Seidman, 1998). I

audiotaped and transcribed all fifteen forty-five minute interviews for a total of 113 pages of transcriptions. I interviewed my four case studies three times each for a total of twelve interviews. I also interviewed three focus groups for a total of three more interviews (one of these groups I interviewed twice).

I interviewed students at three different intervals from October to May. These intervals corresponded to the timing of the various stages of the research/writing process. Thus, interviews were conducted during November, March, and May (see Appendix B for Interview Protocols). The data from these interviews were then coded for analysis.

Student artifacts or writing samples

I collected writing samples from my four case studies to correspond to the stages of the writing process. Thus, I collected samples of notes, outlines, graphic organizers, drafting samples, and final drafts. I also collected similar writing samples from my focus group participants.

These writing samples correspond to the various stages of the writing process as recorded during the research process. Thus, the purpose of collecting writing was to show the different kinds of writing students do as they engage in research. In that sense, the importance of the writing samples is to show the various stages of the writing process. Consequently, through the process, the writing outcomes and the development of adolescent writing is more closely revealed. (Appendix F contains the unique writing processes and products of the four case study students.)

Final evaluation rubric

I designed a rubric for the final evaluation of the research project. (An example of this is found in Appendix E.)

Cooperating teacher questionnaire

I developed a questionnaire for my cooperating teacher. I was curious to find out how her pedagogy might have changed as a result of this project. I was also curious about her perceptions about changes she had observed in the research class students and what connections she had seen between the research class and other subject areas. This questionnaire is found in Appendix C.

Coding of data

Coding of data in an ethnographic context means the process of categorizing and sorting data. Codes provide the link between the data collection and the development of common or generative themes, and thus becomes the fundamental means of developing the analysis (Lofland & Lofland, 1995).

Initial coding

To begin the process of coding, I read my reflections, my cooperating teacher's questionnaire, our combined field notes, all interviews, student reflections and final questionnaires. While I was reading I noted in the margins categories that the data reflected. I then listed all the categories on a separate piece of paper and began to count the number of times some of the categories were repeated across all the data. From this initial coding, the most numerous categories I noticed and named from the data were the following: "Process," "Identity," "Collaborative Inquiry," "Mediated Learning," and "Making Connections."

Second coding

I then went back through the data and color coded each theme, looking for which words or short phrases were most often repeated by the informants. These became my

“emic” or insider’s themes. These themes had recurring concepts throughout: “Learning English;” “Becoming Readers, Writers, and Researchers” and “Helping Each Other.” I then organized my data into files according to these themes. These three themes became my generative themes from which I would build my analysis.

A framework for analysis

When I looked at the data a third time, I found that the three generative themes overlapped with the overarching theme of the research/writing process. Through the research process, I suggest that students were writing their identities as students, readers, writers, and researchers. Thus, I decided to tell the story of this research class using the stages of the research process.

Moreover, my interviews and reflections were crafted around the three basic stages of the research process: Choosing Topics and Researching; Note Taking; Drafting and Editing; and Presentation of the Data. Therefore, the data correlates well within this framework.

In Chapter Four, I have written a narrative description of my research class at work. This chapter is divided into four parts corresponding to the stages of the research process: choosing topics or questioning, note taking, drafting, and publishing. My analysis is embedded within the narrative. Student reflections and interviews elucidate the themes, in particular the interview data of my four case study students and my other seven interview informants.

In addition, my specific pedagogical methods are interwoven throughout the narrative, and thus, these pedagogical methods are in many ways interwoven into the themes and categories. They include the following:

- Teacher modeling of process, both written and through “think-alouds”³
- Instructional conversations
- Teacher as coach
- Individual conferencing
- Establishing personal relationships with students
- Establishing structures and routines
- Recognition of the importance of student talk in clarifying ideas

The following narrative represents my best effort at telling the story of my research class. Through this telling, the analysis of the data will become explicit.

³ The Wisconsin Literacy Education and Reading Network Source (2002) defines “think-aloud” as “a metacognitive technique or strategy in which the reader verbalizes aloud while reading a selection orally, thus modeling the process of comprehension” (see Davey, 1983).

Chapter 4: ESL STUDENTS' DEVELOPMENT AS RESEARCHERS

Part I: Asking Questions

Introduction: What is Research?

In the beginning of the project, I was interested to find out students' definitions of research and if they considered themselves to be researchers.⁴ Of the fourteen students, all said that research is looking for information or looking for something that you are interested in finding out more about. For example, Gilda wrote, "I think research is finds when you need to know about something you do a research to find out something about it." Mario added, "Learning something."

Of the fourteen, nine answered that they considered themselves researchers because, as Gilda said, "When I want to know something I ask, I search, and I find the answers." The others were less definite because they weren't always researching or, as Roberto remarked, they could not "find a lot of stuff about the topic."

I found out that all the students had done some kind of research project in ESL III or in Portuguese Science class. However, their teacher had assigned the topic; they could only choose a sub-topic. For instance, the general topic would be animals and they could choose to research about mammals. This would be the first time they were allowed to explore their own topic. One of the students, Miguel, said, "This is harder, we have to do it step by step, not like the other ones where we got the information and tell what we know and that's it!"

I interpreted what Miguel was saying as his sense that the previous research was just an assignment to be fulfilled. The knowledge hadn't yet become his. When I asked

⁴ This questionnaire was inspired by a similar questionnaire developed by Mercado (1992) in her work with an ethnographic research class.

other students about their former research experiences, twelve out of fourteen could only recall a few facts about the topic they had studied. I interpret this as meaning that their topics had not become part of their knowledge base.

Therefore, students showed they had a general idea about research, but not a complete knowledge of the process of researching.

This dissertation aims at describing and analyzing the students' development as researchers. I will be asking the following questions: What does the writing process look like in the context of this research class? What happens to students when they are allowed to choose topics from any area of research interest and allowed to pursue these topics over a year? What does this class look like? What writing outcomes are achieved through the research process?

Beginning The Research Process

In October, I introduced to the students the concept of this yearlong project. To start the process of brainstorming a topic for this project, I explained to them how I had arrived at my own research topic for this dissertation. I told them that first I researched in the area of bilingual education. Now I had begun to narrow my research topic to the writing process of bilingual adolescents. Specifically, I wanted to find out how bilingual students develop as researchers. I explained to them that I wanted them to choose topics that were important to them, as I had done in my research. We would meet for ninety minute blocks twice in a six-day rotation every week until the beginning of June. This would be a great opportunity for us all to do research together.

I then asked them to think of possible topics that would be good for a yearlong research project. What would they really be interested in finding out more about? I

wrote their suggestions on the overhead as they wrote the list in their notebooks under “Choosing Topics.” I asked them to choose a possible topic by the next class meeting.

The largest grouping of topics centered around careers. Three girls chose social issues such as teen pregnancy. Two boys were interested in military careers. Other career topics were psychologist, eye doctor, scientist, veterinarian, architect, model, and dancer. I was thrilled that they chose careers because I believed that giving Latino students in middle school an opportunity to explore career choices would give them a wider view of their world as students and an opportunity to think about their future goals for high school and college. Further, recent research on effective practices for Latino students states that looking at careers in middle school is effective in preventing drop-outs in high school (Lockwood & Secada, 2000).

After we spent sometime choosing topics, I modeled to them how to organize a research project. I explained to students that keeping the data organized was one of the most important things that I had learned as a researcher. I provided them with a binder notebook with separators to begin creating sections that would later correlate to research steps and data collection. Students decorated their notebook covers in ways that reflected their particular personalities and interests. As a class rule, these notebooks would remain in the classroom all year as places for the collection of data; they could not take them home. I wanted them to always have the binders in class, because my past experience tells me that middle school students often forget their materials at home. Thus, for this research project students could always depend on materials with which to work.

Choosing topics: A process of exploration

To help students begin thinking about research questions I gave them a graphic organizer so they could begin asking questions about their topics (see Appendix D). When one of the students asked, “What if we can’t make any questions about our topic?” I suggested that if they could not come up with many questions, then they probably should choose other topics. Students chatted eagerly about their topics. Taking advantage of their enthusiasm, I asked students with similar topics to sit together. They also helped each other generate questions. Almost all second language researchers cite working in groups as one of the most beneficial strategies in acquiring a second language. In particular, research with Latino students found that they worked more effectively in groups than by themselves (Garcia, 1993; Mercado, 1993). Working in groups for Latino students reinforced a cultural expectation of interacting and cooperating with each other to reach a common goal.

My cooperating teacher and I circulated among the students assisting with the wording of questions if students needed help. This kind of help provided the scaffolding necessary for students to succeed independently. I collected their topic organizers after this session, which lasted almost 90 minutes. My next step would be to give the topic lists to the school librarian so he would gather books on the students’ topics.

After I observed students’ topic choices, I noticed that students chose their topics due to different reasons. Some chose topics that blended perfectly with their personality and interests. Mario, for instance, chose to investigate the SWAT team because he was interested in guns and military life. When I asked him why he chose his topic, he replied, “I’ve been thinking about being on the SWAT team for a couple of months, ‘cause I

decided to learn more about guns and about military stuff.” To me the key words here are “I decided”--he is choosing his own topic because he is interested in finding out more about the military.

As Mario explored his topic, he disclosed to me in interviews more about what makes him an individual. At one point he asked me, “Do you know what *dananina* means? (Mario is from Bahia, Brazil) Like when you feel something like you’re scared, but you want to do it?”

I replied, “ I wonder, do you mean like you get a rush of adrenaline, that kind of feeling?... You like having that feeling, sort of being on the edge, would you say? Is that right?”

Mario answered, “Yuh, that’s why I want to do it.... It’s not that easy...everybody’s counting on you...every single move, everyone is counting on you...it makes you important.”

Thus, for Mario being on the SWAT team highlighted for him the importance of his skills in helping his team capture the “bad guy.” His every move was important. To me this was another connection to the part of his personality that loved to live “on the edge.”⁵ In another conversation with him, he disclosed how he went to martial arts classes and how he believed these classes gave him the mental discipline to do well in school.

Another example of a topic that was chosen with passion was Gilda’s. She chose to investigate teenage pregnancy because it was an issue that had an impact in her

⁵ This is an example of instructional conversation, which I used throughout the research process. I began to see my interviews as instructional conversations, because they gave me substantial insight into my students’ thinking processes. They gave me knowledge about how to both help individual students and insights from which I could form a closer personal relationship with each student.

community. When asked why she chose teenage pregnancy as her topic she indicated that for her it was an emotional issue because she knew teenagers who were pregnant in the community and many people made judgments about these girls and she couldn't understand why. "[W]hy did it happen to her...? Every time you hear something like that, it's kind of new.... I can't think about it happens to me, like how is it that girl feeling....how does people look at her now? How can she live in the world that everybody discriminates, racist.... [I]t happens a lot.... [I]t's kind of, you know,...sad...and it's not a good think." She also indicated that when teachers gave students structures they could do better research: "Sometimes you want to learn something but you need pressure, like some people need to do this, you don't know how to start doing things so when the teacher asks you something, gives instruction on how to research...."

Gilda comes from a very religious Baptist background but she also has a close boyfriend. I interpreted her choice as a way of trying to find out more information so as to be better informed about why teens get pregnant, how they think and ultimately how she could reconcile her feelings about teenage pregnancy with the facts that she discovered. Like Mario, Gilda identified with a topic that she was passionate and curious about; but she also indicated that this was a topic of interest in her Brazilian community because her friends and neighbors spoke about many teenagers who had recently become pregnant or who had just had babies at the age of fifteen. I interpret what she has said as making a cultural connection by choosing this topic.

Another cultural connection was Mariela's topic choice. She chose belly dancing as her topic (after narrowing her topic from the broad topic of dancing around the world).

In her interview with me, she confided, “I chose [it] because like when I was little I my dream was dancing but I didn’t know what kind of dance so then there’s a program in Brazil about the belly dancing so I thought it was good.” It turns out that this program is a telenovela called “O Clone!” which takes place in Brazil and Morocco. Mariela’s interest in dancing led her to her Brazilian culture via belly dancing.

Roberto summed up students’ thinking about their topics best when he said, “I picked something I liked.” When I asked him why he liked his topic of the military, he stated, “Because soldiers have discipline and some of them are heroes and they are important persons.... [T]hey are divided in many [groups] and they could defend the country anytime, that’s why I like them.” In another conversation, Roberto disclosed to me that his uncle was a high-ranking soldier in the Brazilian Army—another possible cultural connection that is part of Roberto’s identity.

In summary, from these case study responses, students chose topics that were related to the exploration of identity. The two main choices were career interests and cultural or community connections.

Refining topics by asking questions, reflecting, and reading

Asking questions

The students had chosen their topics but now it was time to refine their research questions since all students’ first topic developers had very brief questions. I decided to use another graphic organizer to assist them—the Q-Matrix developed by Spencer Kagan (1988). (See Appendix D.) This matrix stretches students’ questioning modes into more critical thinking by asking students to ask questions about possibilities, predictions, and

imaginings. The questions are based on Bloom's taxonomy of higher order thinking skills (1956).

I put the matrix on the overhead projector and distributed copies to the students. I asked students to help each other with forming new questions. For example:

Bearse: Mariela, what's your topic?

Mariela: Dance?

Bearse: Can you make a question using the chart?

Mariela: No, Mrs. Bearse.

Miguel: Where can you dance?

Mariela: Oh, yeah, that's a good question!

Bearse: Nadia, can you make a question for Mariela?

Nadia: What do you wear for belly dancing?

Gilda (asking a question on her own topic): How does someone get pregnant?

Felicia: Should we teach birth control to young people or abstinence?

This interchange demonstrates how students can help each other when the teacher models a method of asking questions. I am making my own cognitive processing explicit so students hear me thinking out loud.

After this small interchange, I modeled for the class some more questioning using a current *Newsweek* issue to explore topic choices about military careers. I wanted them to see how I would ask questions about a particular topic. I also used this opportunity to focus Mario and Ricardo's thinking on military careers rather than just guns. I had been worried about Roberto and Mario's preoccupation with guns and snipers, so I tried to steer them in the direction of exploring military careers and the various careers within the

military, including special operations forces. I also talked about my own enthusiasm reading this issue that led me to many questions including the role of women in today's Army. By this process I was trying to model my own curiosity and questioning process.

On the other hand, Miguel insisted all period that he had no other questions about "construction engineering" because he didn't know the topic yet. He would find questions as he read more. What an insight he had come to, I thought! Miguel confirmed for me that each student has an individual way of knowing and coming to the process of research. I pointed out to students that questions change as we read more books and find more questions to ask.

Reflecting as a way of knowing

At each stage of the research class I asked students to reflect upon what they had learned. As students became more involved in this kind of "deep engagement", I hoped that they would become more aware of what they needed to know and thus create optimal zones of proximal development for learning English through the research process (Cambourne, 1988, 1995). Throughout the year, then, I had students stop and write reflections about what they were learning. I wanted students to write down their thinking on paper as a way of clarifying their ideas.

One of the first questions I asked was, "What did you learn about asking questions and the research process?"

Pablo was particularly thoughtful (unfortunately he had to move to another school at the end of the week): "I think this research project would be fun not only to me but to everyone to us because we are going to learn lots of new things and we could also improve our English.... Someday we will be professional researchers of any questions or

hypothesis that challenge us to work as good researchers.” I interpret Pablo’s words as already seeing the value of doing research and learning English through authentic literacy tasks (Goodman & Goodman, 1990).

Darlana agreed with Gilda’s earlier assertion that “doing this research will be very interesting because sometimes we have a curiosity in something, but we are lazy to look for it, and this is going to be our opportunity to find out the answer for questions we have.” I interpret this to mean that students have their own questions to explore, but need teachers to provide opportunities for challenging choices during the school day.

Other students spoke about the value of asking questions in a group and using the chart offered by the teacher. Melina wrote, “Our research class is a very good class because everybody asks everybody and help[s] each other.” Gilda agreed. “When you do a group work everybody has a different question and questions give you the idea of doing research.” I interpret these students’ remarks as affirming the positive mediation of both their teachers and their peers. Therefore, this suggests to me that knowledge and meaning are socially constructed through the process of negotiation and evaluation.

Juan, who had trouble expressing himself clearly, also agreed: “I learned to ask questions and also the chart helped me to ask questions because the chart has a lot of information. I also enjoyed answering questions with Nadia, Francisca, and Melina. We worked very good.”

Roberto also wrote positively about the research-questioning experience: “I think it will be fun because I have a lot of questions that I don’t know the answers [to], interesting questions like, ‘What kind of sniper [law enforcement] organizations are in the U.S.?’ I can think of SWAT [because] it is a strong name and many snipers are from

that organization. I know FBI means Federal Bureau of Investigation. It is the national police of the U.S.”

Changing and narrowing topics: Exploring through reading

Students began reading books and searching encyclopedias in the school library as a first step in exploring their topics. I arranged for several formal library research lessons in both the school library and the public library. These lessons and the use of the library space proved to be invaluable for our students. I wanted to make sure students used book sources before they turned to Internet searches. I believed that this was an important step in developing their identities as readers.

Later, they would have several lessons by the school and town librarians on how to do Internet searches using search engines and making advanced searches. This combination of resources proved invaluable to me as a researcher and I wanted to model for my students my own curiosity as a reader and researcher.

In the first session the librarian discussed generally how the library is organized, and showed students how to use the index of the encyclopedias as well as the system for call numbers. They were also given a packet of information on how to record bibliographic information. When he asked how many students had library cards, twelve out of the thirteen students answered, “Yes.” I had assumed that my middle school Brazilian and Latino students wouldn’t have library cards because at this age many students don’t think going to the library is “cool.” My students showed me how dangerous it was to make assumptions about a group of people without data.

As students began searching the encyclopedias and other books that were available on their topic, they sat at tables and helped each other find information. At this

point some students realized that they needed to change their topics for lack of information. For instance, Nadia declared about her topic, psychiatry, “This is too difficult to understand, Miss. I don’t understand the words!” She also didn’t like the idea of animal experiments. (“That’s gross!”) She then asked, “What do you call the job where a person does her nails?”

“Cosmetology,” I replied.

She was excited about this and decided to pursue Cosmetology next since she was anticipating that she might train in the field the following year at the local technical school.

During this phase, students were still exploring, experimenting, discussing information with each other. They did very little note taking at this point. Exploration and collaboration were key elements of all our library times together. Serious note taking began in late November and early December after they had visited the public library and were able to check out books. My cooperating teacher and I also went to our libraries and found books on their topics. These books were always kept in the classroom so students never had excuses for not reading.

For me, one of the most significant scenes from a library day was watching Felicia, Darlana, Mariela, and Melina pore over a book about Brazil. They exclaimed over the map, “Oh, that’s where I live!” When I suggested that they might do research on the homeless children of Brazil, Mariela exclaimed, “No, Miss, why just look at the sad things? We want to see the beautiful things!” Mariela had put me in my place with her expression of pride in her country. She reminded me that Brazil is a country filled with contrasts, and students wanted to see all the best qualities that Brazil had to offer. This

event also reminded me that students were in charge of their own learning and my suggestions were not as important as their making their own discoveries.

By this time, Darlana and Felicia had their shoes off and were completely engrossed in looking at the book. After this discussion, Melina decided to change her topic from teen pregnancy to Brazil. She wrote, “I changed my research title because it was a little confused. So now I’m working about Brazilian culture, it’s much easier because it’s my country.” These students’ expressions of cultural pride suggest to me how closely students identify with topics that are both intrinsically motivating and connected to some aspect of their identity—it is one of their lived realities (Mercado, 1993). This was a research finding that came up over and over again throughout the year: intrinsic motivation not only motivates students to read and write, it also is a key element in students’ forming their identity through their writing. I will discuss this in further detail in Parts II, Part III, and Part IV of this chapter.

In a November focus interview with four of these students, they all discussed why they had changed topics. Melina had chosen teen pregnancy, but then decided she would rather research Brazil because this would be easier and more interesting—it was her country.

Juan said that he had spent many hours researching computer programming but found the topic too difficult and confusing. I asked him if he wanted to find out more about his native country, Puerto Rico, and he enthusiastically answered “yes” because he knew so little about his own country. Juan needed the help of a teacher to explore possibilities and choose his topic.

Nadia was very clear about why she had to change her topic three times:

“I have to choose over three times; the first one was psychology, [which] was really hard; the second one was cosmetology and I couldn’t find anything about it, and I like animals so I thought about animal rights and I just don’t like it when people like scientists try to hurt them, so [if] I can prove to them it’s cruel, I want to do that.”

Nadia had a lot of difficulty expressing herself in writing, but in interviews and class discussions she was very articulate. She was passionate about her topic, and once she found this passion she was outspoken and became an avid researcher to prove her points. She even announced one day that she had become a vegetarian. In her interviews, she also used strong academic English. When I asked her what was different about this research project for her, she replied, “You have to be very diligent about it.” I asked her to further explain what she meant.

Bearse: What do you mean, Nadia, about [being] diligent?

Nadia: You have to work real hard, we just can’t like be, ‘Oh, I don’t get it.’ Even if you don’t get it, you try and try until you get it.”

If I had relied only on Nadia’s written output, I would never have known what a deep thinker she was, or what a passionate researcher she had become. She constantly used academic vocabulary, like “diligent,” in her conversations and held onto the new words that dealt with her topic.

Becoming researchers: Reading expository texts

In order for students to be able to extract information from the readings, I modeled note taking on the overhead. I used an article about whaling to teach the process. As we read each paragraph, I asked students to tell me what they felt the key points were and I underlined those on the overhead. As we completed two pages of this

process, we then moved on to double entry or interactive notebooks (Berthoff, 1981). In this process, students take notes on the right side of the page, and then on the left side of the page they ask questions or make comments about their notes. I hoped that this process would lead to more interactive reading and connecting with the text.

My cooperating teacher's field notes were invaluable to me; she was able to capture the conversations that I could not write when I was conducting a lesson. Her notes helped me understand if my lesson was working, if students were understanding the material and the task. For example, I thought most of the students were not catching onto the questioning aspect of note taking; however, she captured in her notes Nadia asking this question about the whaling text: "Why don't they just use the large boat [to catch the whales]?"

I answered, "Because they can't get close to the whales. That's a great question, Nadia. You could put that on the left side of your notebook."

Another question came up after reading the description of a Nantucket sleigh ride. I asked, "What is a sleigh?"

"It's like a sled," Melina answered.

Pablo added, "It's what Santa uses!"

Clarifying meaning by connecting ideas to personal knowledge seemed to help these students understand more clearly a picture of a Nantucket sleigh ride on the water than a dry definition from a textbook or dictionary would have been able to do.

Helping students with note taking, however, was a yearlong process; these lessons were just the beginning of helping students pick main ideas from passages. Even though the research/writing process has definite stages, the process is recursive as students

continued to ask questions that would narrow or change their topic, throughout the year. Reading, taking notes, and drafting are also recursive; as students became more efficient researchers, they became more efficient note takers and writers.

They also became invested in reading books of their own choosing. Miguel was one of the first students to bring in books on his topic of civil engineering from the public library; he became one of our most avid researchers and users of the library. He had both the school library and the public library order books for him and this led him to an interest in finding more detailed information about The Big Dig. Mariela also wrote in her journal, “I whent to library yestoday and I got to books about belly dance and my gonna bring tomowo.”⁶

How students see themselves: Reflecting on the research process

For their second reflection, I asked the following question: “What did you learn so far about research and your topic?”

Gilda wrote, “I learned that researching is not just copying what the book has printed but choosing the best parts. Some girls decide to do things with their own hands. I’ll never forget this day as long as I live!”

Gilda’s words suggest her continued fascination with her topic of teenage pregnancy and her empathy with these girls. I suggest that what she is doing is what Louise Rosenblatt (1978) calls “efferent reading” as she transforms what she reads to make it her own. She is making her own interpretations and reacting to her reading in an empathetic manner. Further, she is beginning to identify herself as a researcher who knows that true research is “choosing the best parts!”

⁶ These are Mariela’s exact words. It is interesting to note the development of her writing skills through the research process, as we will see in later pages.

Miguel also wrote about his process of getting closer to his topic: “I was reading world book encyclopedia and I decided to change my topic to architect becós [sic.] I want to study architect and civil engineering. I did very well in my research and that is why I decided that I really want to change my topic.” Earlier he had chosen the broad topic of engineering but now he had begun to narrow his topic.

After two months of exploring their topics, I wondered what students had learned about them by the end of November. So, just before Thanksgiving, I asked students to write a reflection about three questions: 1) What is some information that you have gathered up to this point? Have you decided to keep your topic? 2) In what area of research do you need more information? 3) What do you think of the research process?

All the students at this point were able to write small paragraphs on what they learned using specific vocabulary from their topic. For example, Roberto wrote:

“I have some information about the Special Ops that are special division of the army that are used in war, Green Berets, Navy Seals, Army Rangers are some of the divisions of the Ops. My topic is military career and wars. Military ranks would be what I wanted to know and about wars is where did they happen, how? Why? When? Who was in the fight? Who won? Stuff like that.” In this paragraph, Ricardo shows his knowledge of content-specific vocabulary like “Green Berets,” “Special Ops,” and “military ranks.” He also shows his ability to answer a question clearly and directly with a combination of declarative and interrogative sentences.

In his second paragraph, he shows that he’s thinking more deeply about his topic by exploring philosophical questions like, “What makes a good leader? Who are some of the best leaders in history?”

He continues to write his third paragraph by writing about the research process. He reveals his conflict between too much to do and wanting to learn: “Too much stuff to do but it is a good thing because I learn more about things.”

Roberto was beginning to see himself as a learner and researcher. He was the most interesting and also the most frustrating student to observe. He had taken very few notes so far, and his interests were becoming wider instead of narrower. Roberto was an avid reader; while observing him, I noticed him reading whole sections and then writing in his own words what he learned. After many discussions, I decided to let Roberto work through his reading in many areas; he needed to explore more before he could write. I began to realize now that students would eventually narrow their topic when they became truly interested in it.

Gilda continued to become personally involved in her topic. Her written reflection suggests more advanced English in her sentence structure compared to her first written reflection in October in which she wrote, “I think research is finds when you need to know about something you do a research to find out something about it.”

In contrast, by the end of November, she wrote, “Today I learned that you may count on your mother for everything even if this thing is that you are pregnant. I learned that if you are not ready to have sex you should not do it because you might don’t like the consequences.”

Her new questions also revealed a higher level of thinking than her first questions, which were very factual and concerned only with the pregnant girl. For example, some of the questions she wrote in October included, “Who is [the] best person that can help a teen pregnant? What happens to a teenager’s baby?” However, her new questions

suggest a greater breadth and sophistication to her research: “What happens to the teen father? What if the girl’s mother decide[s] to go to court because he is eighteen and her daughter is only sixteen and pregnant? What rights does the father have?”

Summary of November interviews

Five of the six students whom I interviewed in November were beginning to see themselves as readers and researchers. They stated that they were improving their English by learning “new” and “hard” vocabulary, and developing academic vocabulary that was connected to both the research process and their specific content words.

Becoming readers and researchers

When I asked Mario what he thought about the research project so far, he answered, “It’s hard take to much time but I know that it will help me with what I wanna be in the future.” He also admitted earlier in the same interview, “Normally I don’t read, Miss, books.” He also said that he wanted to learn more English now “because when you learn more, you always want to know more, I think.” Mario indicated, too, that his project was helping him to think about his future: “Is that it makes me think that’s what I want, what I want to be.” Mario indicates here that he “normally” didn’t read books, but now he wanted to learn more and consequently he was learning more English.

Juan agreed with Mario that he was reading more and his English was improving by writing more. He connected the research project to his new skills: “I think it [research is] good because never in my life I haven’t done a research project like this. I think I’m learning how to find more information but now I know and I’ve learned so much.”

Often students spontaneously came up to me first thing in the morning before homeroom and told me about their latest research findings. For example, Darlana

exclaimed one morning, “I found a new site on Alta-Vista about modeling!” She had been struggling to find information about modeling, but she had looked at home on her computer and found what she needed.

“I found another great book on The Big Dig, *Maestra*. I organized my notes, too,” declared Miguel. He showed me the latest book on The Big Dig, *The Big Dig at Night*. Miguel was now going to the library every day to check out books.

“Wow! You are really becoming quite a researcher, Miguel!” I enthused. “What a great book!”

Mariela also confided to me that she had enlisted the support of her mother to take her to the library to find more books about belly dancing; and Roberto and Mario brought in printouts of sites that they had researched at home.

Improvement in English connected to the acquisition of new vocabulary

In a written reflection Mariela wrote, “I think that this is a very nice project because that is helpin me in my englis clases [*sic.*].” When I asked her how doing research helped her English, she clarified, “By reading a lot, talk[ing] with the teachers, and American people [as well as] writing [and] taking notes.”

Gilda stated in her interview that her English was improving because she was learning new vocabulary: “Like if you don’t know the word, look in the dictionary and see the meaning what does it mean and that helps.” She added, “My English has improved a lot by writing, reading, listening, and the way I speak.”

Roberto succinctly summarized his process of learning English: “Cause I will practice.... I will write more, read more, I’ll learn more words, maybe I’ll speak more, [even] talk more in an interview.” My interpretation of Ricardo’s use of “more” was that

he was learning more “new” English vocabulary by reading “more advanced” books through his research. He also had the opportunity to “speak more” to me through interviews, which I believe helped him to clarify his thinking by talking over his ideas with an interested listener.

Developing academic vocabulary

Besides the instances of academic vocabulary mentioned above, on the day that we brainstormed research words for a Word Wall, I realized the extent to which our students had retained academic vocabulary throughout the research process. They surprised me with thirty-three research words. I hadn’t imagined that they had absorbed so many research words. The following was their list: internet, information, books, almanac, summarize, read, understanding, listening, words, work, bibliography, data, highlight, data collection, organization, interview, intelligence, note taking, reflection, index, visualizing, topics, expository text, library, research binder, questions, answers, researchers, resources, web-site, search engine, and advanced search.

I was surprised not only at their new vocabulary but at how fast they had come up with these words. I interpret this data as meaning that researching had become part of their new identity as learners; that is, they had absorbed these words into their background knowledge so that they could quickly make connections with these words to the world of research. They could now apply these words to their own projects as they continued to research and collect data.

I interpret the above data as suggesting that students were identifying themselves as readers, researchers, and learners of English. They saw how their English was improving through the research process. These students were making new meaning out

of what they read. I contend that what they were doing was transforming meaning (see Cambourne, 2002).

My students were engaged in research. That is, they were exploring new question after new question, finding out additional information. This is how learners transform knowledge into their own meanings. I contend that Cambourne's definition of transformation is also a metaphor for how these students were both transforming knowledge into their own meaning as well as how these ESL students were acquiring English. Moreover, I interpret this process of "transformation" as students creating new identities as readers and writers.

Deadlines, goal setting, and rituals: Giving structure to the process

Setting deadlines

At this point, the cooperating teacher and I thought it was important to give students a broad outline of the project deadlines. Even with all the enthusiasm students displayed, we noticed that there wasn't that much actual production of notes. There was a lot of collaborating and discussing, with more skimming of books and less concentrated reading and note taking. I struggled daily with how much structure to impose and how much to let the process take care of itself. In the end it was a compromise because I knew the students needed deadlines just like I did. They needed to know what my expectations were. Their projected deadline dates are found in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1 Projected Deadline Dates

| Dates | Tasks |
|--------------------------------|---|
| November to early February | Take notes, read, reflect, get organized, complete 10-15 pages of notes |
| Early February to end of March | Complete rough draft |
| April 1-May 6 | Complete final draft (Must be at least 10 double spaced pages. |
| May 6-May 31 | Compile and present final projects |

Goal Setting

At this point it was also necessary to give students definite goals to complete by the end of research class. Because the cooperating teacher was linking this project with their Language Arts grades, we decided to give students a certain number of pages of notes to complete by the end of a class. We said that they had to have at least five pages of notes by the close of the term. We followed this procedure for the rest of the year, because we found that deadlines motivated our students to complete their tasks on time. My cooperating teacher's belief in this process was invaluable to me; by the end of the year she was counting the Research Class as seventy-five percent of the students' language arts grades. After all, she said, "This is all language arts!" I never felt that this structure took away from my belief in the importance of the process; in contrast, I think that the structure helped the students throughout the research process in setting goals and producing written material.

Reviewing

Another kind of structure was making a ritual of reviewing before every class. I began each class with an overview of what we needed to do and then we set a goal for the day. At the beginning of each class I reiterated important things to keep in mind: use headings to delineate sections or topics, put page numbers at the top of each page, write bibliographic material at the top of each page, and write in phrases, not sentences. We also talked about enclosing author's words in quotes especially if they were citing statistics.

These procedures helped our students know what our expectations were and gave them a new motivation to take complete notes. I knew my expectations were high, but these students rose to the challenge. They often mentioned in interviews that research was hard but worth it because it would help them in the future. They could see the authentic reasons for doing this project. Common words that came up in student interviews and reflections throughout the year were "hard," "challenging," and "professional" to refer to their work. Cummins' research on second language acquisition is clear in saying that in order to accelerate language acquisition, literacy lessons must be authentic, affirming, and challenging (1996). The research on second language learning environments is also clear that giving ESL students a structure and directed lessons were also instrumental in providing second language students the framework for success (Freeman & Freeman, 2002).

Summary of Findings, December 2001

Even at this early stage of the research process where students were choosing their

topics and beginning their projects, I contend that they were developing their identities as researchers. The research process was also directly connected to improving their English and planning for their future. The following links were connected to their improvement of English:

- Learning new vocabulary and new concepts
- Writing
- Reading
- Speaking

Further, their improvement in English gave students the confidence to see themselves as researchers because they were beginning to ask thought-provoking questions as they were finding more information; and they were acquiring academic vocabulary as they were adding content vocabulary to their knowledge base.

Additional findings that I had at this stage of the research process included the following:

- When students choose topics directly related to their particular interest, they are intrinsically motivated to read more and find out what they want to know.
- Instructional conversations with students gave me insights on how to provide individual help and provided the basis for forming personal relationships.

These conversations also gave me the opportunity to provide additional scaffolding and modeling as needed for students to successfully go on to the next task.

- Most topics were chosen because of a cultural connection. Cummins states that collaboration in the construction of knowledge will operate effectively only in contexts where student identities are being affirmed (1996, p. 26).
- The process of getting closer to their topics involved: choosing the best parts, efferent reading, getting hooked on a topic, and asking more focused, pointed questions.
- By writing reflections, students comprehended information better and made learning their own.
- Students helped each other with choosing topics and with clarifying readings of research. Wells (1999) maintains that the zone of proximal development is created in the interaction between the student and the co-participants in a collaborative activity.
- The research/writing process is recursive. As students became more efficient researchers, they became more efficient note takers and writers.
- Explicit modeling of the research process provided the scaffolding for student success in research.
- Giving structure to the process also provided students with the tools for success. This structure was provided in the following ways: giving students firm deadlines; giving daily/monthly deadlines; beginning each class with a review of what is needed and the goal for the day; and using headings to delineate sections or topics.
- Authentic literacy activities that are challenging accelerate language acquisition.

- As students and teachers were engaging in collaborative inquiry, we were beginning to form a “community of inquiry” (Wells, 2000).

Part II: Note Taking

Introduction

As students became more involved in inquiry, they became more skilled at note taking. I observed that note taking and researching were a recursive process that occurred side by side in our classes in many different settings: the classroom, the library, and the computer lab. These different venues gave students both a variety of sources and a change in atmosphere. It was also reflective of how real researchers work. These varied places gave me an opportunity to observe not only students' note taking processes, but also their interactions through collaborative inquiry.

The Development of Metatextual Awareness

In December I brought in my research project to show students what a completed project might look like. I showed them the sections into which I had divided my project and my completed bibliography. I emphasized how important it was for me to take notes with topic headings so I could write a final report using various resources. I was requiring that students use at least five different sources for their research, which could be a combination of books and Internet.

Mariela asked my cooperating teacher, "Miss, how will I be able to make sections like Ms. Barse if I only have one sentence, then how do I make an entire section?"

She responded, "That's why you need to read much more so you can start adding more notes to your sections. At the end, when you write your paper, you would only write the sections which had a lot of notes."

Later that period, Mariela also asked me to help her to look through one of her books and choose which sections would be the most important to read about the history

of belly dancing. She marked these sections with sticky notes. I saw Mariela become more aware of what good researchers do in locating information: with my mediated help she could accomplish these tasks on her own. I consider this “mediated help” in the Vygotskian sense because she could now go further in her research because of my help. As I observed her, she was continuing to mark sections and take notes about the history of belly dancing.

At one point she called out, “Look, Miss, I found it!” When I asked her what she found, she showed me the section from the Internet explaining when belly dancing came to the United States during the Chicago World’s Fair of 1898. Mariela was always so excited when she found new information—it was pure pleasure watching her reaction. She often came into class bubbly and talkative and declared, “Miss, I’m so excited!”

A typical day was filled with my cooperating teacher and I going from student to student checking on their progress and giving them individual help when needed. I was finding that even with specific handouts and procedures given to each student for their notebooks, they all still needed personal direction to succeed. From my previous teaching experience and from the work of such researchers as Cummins (1996) and Freeman and Freeman (2002), I have found that ESL students need guided rereading of procedures that help to clarify ideas in English that they may not have mastered in their native language.

For example, Nadia needed a lot of help in taking notes in her own words. I sat beside her and we read the sentence together and then I asked her to rephrase the sentence out-loud. Through this method I could hear her thinking process and better assess whether she understood what she was hearing. She then wrote the sentence in her own

words. She was fascinated about the story of a dog with a mechanical heart that paved the way for human transplants. She asked to take her books home to take notes—she said now that she was really “living it”—she could feel her pain for the animals and wanted to know more about fighting for animal rights. When I asked her to clarify what she meant by “living it,” she replied without hesitation, “It’s like you have feelings for that person, like say the pregnant lady: you have feelings for her so you really want to try to figure out a way to stop that. So you keep researching, researching until you have a chance to show there is a reason so you stop it. So you’re really living it. You get hurt when you feel it, you cry and stuff like that.”

I interpret what Nadia was saying was this: by “living her project,” she was invested in her topic in a unique way. She could identify with the people she was reading about through the note taking process. As she did further research on her topic, she found more instances of cruelty to animals in various animal experiments to test cosmetics. Through this recursive process of researching, taking notes, rereading her notes, Nadia was “living” her project as this topic became part of her everyday life. I suggest that she was forming her identity both as a researcher and as a writer. For Nadia, this was becoming her “lived reality” (Mercado, 1993; Van Manen, 1990).

By December, I noticed that students were actively engaged in researching their topics through the note taking process. Gilda and Felicia also indicated that they could empathize with the teenage girls they were reading about as they took notes, and that’s what made them want to know more so they could help. Mario still connected what he was learning with his future: “I choose what I like it [*sic.*]. If I like it I’ll put it on [my

notes]--if it's about my future so I just think of it, I like it, put it on." This is how he went about taking his notes.

Students' note taking processes were fascinating to observe because they were all unique. For example, Roberto remembered many details about what he read. He was such an avid reader that he took notes the following way:

"First, I'll read the book, then I'll take notes of what I understood of the book, and then I number the pages, and then later when I'm going to write a draft I'll organize it by the chronological order and that's about it." I am fascinated by Roberto's sophisticated use of the word "chronological" and his clear sentences. He was using more and more academic and content-specific vocabulary in his writing and this was the area where he, too, saw his greatest gains: "I learn words every time I use them when I want. I think you're always learning new words, new rules, and stuff."

Roberto was a lover of language and words. He seemed to savor the experience of gaining new words in English. I noticed this last year for the first time in his ESL I class while I was working with the class on a poetry lesson about special persons. He wanted to describe the back of his father's neck and he insisted on knowing what the precise word for the back of the neck was. When we found "nape" in the dictionary, he was thrilled and used it in his poetry piece. I noticed the same thing this year as Roberto asserted that he was "always learning new words." He would often call me over to ask me the meaning of this word or that and then go on reading. He seemed to actually skip the note taking process by hand as he was mentally remembering what he read by taking notes in his head, and then summarizing what he wrote. For Roberto, part of his lived reality was the discovery of English words.

Similarly, Gilda described her note taking process as first reading a passage and then summarizing it: “I took the important facts about the topic and I wrote it [*sic.*]. That was the process.” She admitted that summarizing was the most difficult for her: “because sometimes it’s hard to read and rewrite things the way to say it again; you have to think about it, like how is the best way I’m going to do it, what is the best words and things like that.” Gilda, however, unlike Roberto, did take detailed notes in her own words and then summarized what she read later during the note taking process.

For example in one section of her notes taken from the book *Changing Bodies, Changing Lives* by Ruth Bell, she wrote the following summaries, “When you are pregnant, you may have lots of feeling, thoughts, and fantasies about a possible pregnancy. That is not feeling wrong or right and it’s a symptom.”

In another place, she wrote, “When you want to have a pregnancy test, you may call for information, you don’t need to tell your name, and you ought to ask if it is confidential and if it’s available for teens.”

From these notes, Gilda demonstrates to me that she is learning how to summarize large concepts in her own words while incorporating new content vocabulary. I suggest that as students are constantly taking notes and paraphrasing what they have read, they are creating their own personal paraphrases, which leads to a kind of transformation in their learning to read and write in English.

Another example of a lived reality was revealed when I interviewed Nadia again about her note taking process. She declared: “Well, the first week I started I used to copy page for page, then you helped me to just take notes, and I learned from that and now I take a lot of notes. I think I have over twenty-one pages of notes!” She said her process

had changed over time, too: “I read and then I put it in a little summary and sometimes I pick out the important points from the paragraph.” For Nadia this is a significant change since December when I was sitting beside her helping her to rephrase sentence after sentence. Without this beginning one-on-one help, I suggest that Nadia would not have made so much progress or would have gained the confidence to do this task herself. My explicit teaching and helping was mentioned by many of the students as adding to the possibility that they would succeed. I interpret this kind of collaborative inquiry as optimizing Nadia’s zone of proximal development as described by Wells (2000).

Felicia emphasized, “[In] the beginning I just started copying the whole book and then you told me to summarize the most important parts and then sometimes I just read and then I start to write.”

Juan agreed that in the beginning he was copying the whole book. When I asked him why this wasn’t helpful, he clarified by saying, “It doesn’t help you understand.”

What impressed me the most about these interviews was that students were able to describe their note taking process in detail. They were understanding how they had changed their methods and how it had helped them. They were metacognitively aware of their understandings and this led them to a deeper understanding of their own research process. I interpret this as displaying “metatextual awareness” which Cambourne describes as being consciously aware of the ways texts function and the strategies that effective readers use when creating meaning from text (2002, p. 37).

I suggest that my ESL students were demonstrating this kind of “metatextual awareness” because they could describe their note taking processes to me in both their interviews and in their written reflections. They could make explicit the relationships

between reading, note taking, and summarizing. Ricardo could explain the importance of learning new vocabulary as he read and took notes. Gilda, Nadia, Felicia, and Juan could explain how learning to summarize was the key to their success in note taking.

They could also explain how they decided to move on to different areas of note taking. For example, Marina in her November twentieth reflection wrote, “I think I need for information in Brazilian arts and music, I already have enough information in food.” Likewise, Juan wrote, “I have to find more information about Puerto Rico, I only have just a little information. I need more information, more books too.” I interpret these remarks as showing students’ consciousness of what they needed to do next in their particular research process.

Filling in The Information Gaps

Visiting the public library in December gave students more opportunities to become “real” researchers. Unlike the classroom, where it took five to ten minutes for students to settle down and stop chatting in order to focus on their research, at the library, they were immediately engaged. When we arrived there, the reference librarian gave them a brief overview of where things could be found, and then the students were free to find books or use the Internet. We had a special section of the second floor library space reserved for us. The library space was open and spacious with tables, magazine racks, open stacks, and computers spread all over the second floor. There were also cozy reading areas with soft chairs and round tables for taking notes. Our class gravitated toward the tables as our central location, but students were free to roam the space; the only requirement was that they had to check out at least one new book and have found

several new sources for their notes. Since there were only eleven students present that day, all students were able to receive lots of attention.

I noticed how quickly all the students found what they needed or asked for what they needed. At this point in their research they knew what gaps in information they had. They knew how to go about solving their next literacy tasks, similarly to how they had reflected earlier in class about what their next steps in research would be. I interpret this as another extension of students' demonstrating their continued "metatextual awareness" about their future literacy goals.

Roberto was more focused today and found a lot of interesting books by using the on-line catalog. We had another discussion about his interests when he found a book on the history of war. He and Berndt jointly figured out how to copy a multi-page illustration of a WWII Japanese warplane. They were very proud of this effort. I wondered if this fascination with Japanese war involvement reflected Roberto's Japanese cultural identity. He had also found information on the Russo-Japanese War and was very interested in how this war connected to World Wars I and II.

Roberto's love of history was a continual sight to see unfold. He read history encyclopedias that we had in our room in his spare time. His curiosity was endless and this research project was an important vehicle for him to pursue his curiosity. Unlike before, Roberto was now less argumentative with me, which freed him to explore his topic in his particular style. Unlike before, I stopped pulling my hair out every time I saw Roberto widen his topic. I stopped trying to argue with Roberto about focusing his topic: I trusted that he would find a writing focus by the time drafting time arrived.

Other students were excited about their findings, too. Mariela found an Internet site that gave her information on costumes and the most often asked questions about belly dancing. She was able to print this information out so she could highlight her notes later on. Nadia found five books on animal rights on her own and then asked the reference librarian if she could type her notes on the computer. I never had seen her so focused. Juan found several books on Puerto Rico and worked mostly on his own. I helped him narrow his topic to three aspects of Puerto Rican culture: food, art, and music. I suggested the Travel Insight Guides as another good source. On the way home he mentioned that he wanted to do research in the library over Christmas vacation.

Miguel became fascinated with a Big Dig web site and checked out several books on the Big Dig. He said he was interested in this topic because it included so many aspects of engineering: buildings, tunnels, and structures. I was learning more and more what made Miguel “tick.” I knew now that, like Roberto, Miguel had a very curious mind and that he needed to check out many books from the library to explore every aspect of engineering. This is what really fascinated him about The Big Dig.

Moreover, Miguel was seeing how his interest in engineering might help his native country of El Salvador. On the way to the library we had walked together and he told me about his experiences in El Salvador taking a truck to school and walking to a *mercado* to help his grandmother. He said he wanted to return to El Salvador to go to college and help his country, “maybe build roads, I don’t know.” We also discussed what opportunities he would have here that he could bring back to his native country.

Reflecting on the Process: Students' Perceptions of Themselves As Researchers

After our visit to the library I asked students to write about their experiences there. They all commented on their love of freedom to find what they needed and also all the help that was available. Mariela, who was shy and not always confident in her English speaking ability, summed up this feeling best: "My experience at the library was that we can find everything in there but to find we got to ask for help. I liked [this] because it was fun because I had more freedom to find more information for my topic, and it was easy when the people of there help us about topic and they were very kind to me, I mean for us." Like Mariela, all the students really appreciated this individual help and they learned that if they asked the right questions they would find what they needed. I think for some of these students this was a new and surprising learning.

Other reflections revealed that students wrote that being in the library made them think of themselves as "true" researchers. I interpreted this as meaning that going to the library captured what "real" researchers did every day. For example, Miguel wrote, "I learned how to use the public library. I learned more about the library. I learned that if I want to be a good researcher, I could be a good researcher. I learned more about my topic." Miguel had gained new confidence in himself as a researcher, finding the information he needed through the varied resources of the library.

Juan agreed that he felt more like a researcher now: "I also think that being a researcher is not very easy and I had to pass in a difficult process picking my title and it was very difficult so I really enjoyed being a researcher because I learn more about my country. Thanks to Ms. Barse for picking us to be a researcher, I don't think I wouldn't learn more about my country."

Juan's comment about learning about Puerto Rico touched me deeply because I believe so strongly that students are writing their identities through their research. Learning about Puerto Rico was helping Juan find his cultural identity. Juan had a very difficult time writing coherent sentences, as he tended to say the same things over and over again. With lots of individual help, however, he was learning to take more concise notes and his sentences were becoming stronger.

Felicia, whose skills in English were also weak, confirmed that she was learning a lot. She was also reflecting on her own thinking process: "I learn a lot of things.... When I'm researching I like to think and reflect about my topic, but I like to talk to my friends so I feel happy and comfortable. I like to work in teen pregnancy and I'm learning a lot."

Making Connections

In the middle of January I introduced other data sources where we could find information. My plan was that students would include at least three other data sources in an Appendix to their project. I wanted them to see that there were many ways to find information as researchers. We brainstormed a list of possible sources on the overhead while students wrote these sources in their notebooks.

I started them off with Interviews and Photos and then asked them to think of other data that they could put in their final project. They came up with the following list: maps, graphs, videos/movies, laws, diagrams, newspapers, drawings, music, and recipes. Next, they were given a deadline of Jan. 31 to finish taking notes.

In doing this I was also providing a means of differentiated instruction, so that students who were finishing up their note taking early could go on to find other data

sources. At this point students were at different places in the research process so it was important to help students plan their next steps.

For example, Berndt and Juan went to the library to get individualized help with the librarian on their topics. They needed to find more information on the Internet. Miguel was continuing to organize his notebook and he asked if he could take this notebook home to try typing some of his notes. He also brought in another three books on structures. In class it took him a long time to focus and it seemed that he organized his notebook as a way of focusing on a new round of note taking. This caused me to appreciate individual learning styles once again. There was no recipe for guiding students in a research project: there were only guidelines and within those guidelines students found their own way.

Students were also making individual breakthroughs by connecting their notes to other sources they had read. My cooperating teacher captured this vignette in her field notes as she was sitting next to Mariela:

“Mariela was reading about the history of belly dancing and came across conflicting information about the year that belly dancing began. When she saw 200 B.C., she said, ‘That’s not true, Miss, because another *source* [see below] says 1500 B.C.’ Later Mariela asked me about the meaning of *cymbals* and I showed her the meaning with my hands. She said. ‘Wait, Miss. I have another word for that.’ She began to search for the other word in her notebook. Six minutes later she found the word *zills*. Then when she read about how belly dancing was performed for women with no men—for preparation of marriage and fertility—her response, as she began flipping through her

notes, was, ‘Miss, I can put this with the other information.’ She found information on why. ‘See, Miss, here it says belly dancing is used for religious ceremonies!’”

I think this is an example of a recounting of a “think-aloud” and how Mariela made connections in her mind about the notes she had taken. Her use of the word “source” reflected her growth in specific research vocabulary. Additionally, she showed understanding of the importance of being specific in using content vocabulary, as in her example of “zills.” I believe that this was a turning point in Mariela’s thinking and researching processes. She was becoming confident in her ability to think about her notes and make meaning out of her text. She confirmed for me how her metatextual awareness was enabling her to take the next steps of solving a literacy problem. Further, this vignette demonstrates that as students talk out loud about their topic with a teacher (or a peer) their thinking becomes clearer.

I also suggest that Mariela was forming her identity as a researcher by means of rhetorical talk. As she discussed her work, she became more confident. By means of this kind of rhetorical talk she was persuading us about who she is as both a learner and a researcher (Penuel & Wertsch, 1995).

Collaborative Inquiry

Classroom days were the best times to observe students helping each other taking notes or rewriting sentences that were not clear. A very common strategy students used to help each other was to translate concepts into Portuguese to clarify meaning if they didn’t understand a concept in English. I noticed that this was particularly true for Felicia, Mariela, Melina, and Carolina. When I asked them how this translation helped them, Felicia spoke for the group when she said, “Because if I don’t understand something in

English, they can explain it to me in Portuguese. It's better sometimes." The others nodded their heads in agreement.

Because I understood Portuguese I could understand their conversations, and I understood that they were helping each other. Working back and forth between languages was very common for this class. It clarified for me that, even though these students were at an ESL IV level, they still needed clarification of sophisticated ideas in their native language. They were still developing their CALPS in English (Cummins, 1996). My acceptance and encouragement of their bilingualism, I suggest, gave them greater respect for me, their teacher. Encouraging them to use their native language also helped them accelerate their learning of English.

Students helped each other revise what they were writing. After having them write interview questions, I noticed that their questions were very surface and wouldn't encourage much personal information from their interviewees. I asked students to give me what they felt were some of their best questions, which I wrote on the overhead projector:

1. How old were you when you became a model?
2. Do you believe in animal rights?
3. What was the reaction of your parents (to your being pregnant)?
4. What was it like growing up with a rich culture like the one in Brazil?

Students noted that these questions were good because they were specific, open ended, and asked for opinions.

Next, I asked them to work with each other to come up with ten deep-thinking interview questions, questions that were more focused and personal. At first Mariela

wrote only a few questions: "How long does it take to learn belly dancing? What kind of belly dancing did you learn?" With Darlana's help, however, she was able to add several more questions: "Why did you want to dance belly dance? How did you become interested to dance belly dance? How much money did it cost to learn and buy belly dance costumes? How did you start to dance?"

At first Juan wrote only fact questions, asking questions about the history of Puerto Rico. After working with Nadia, he was able to write these questions: "What's your favorite P.R. singer? What's your favorite music? Who's your favorite Puerto Rican artist? What part of Puerto Rico are you from?"

Gilda and Felicia worked together as they were both researching teenage pregnancy. Gilda began asking more pointed questions such as, "Are you going back to school after the delivery? Why or why not? What test did you take to know if you were pregnant or not? What made you take the pregnancy test? What did people say to you when they saw you were pregnant?" Felicia added, "How did you discover that you were pregnant?"

Helping each other became one of the best ways for students to improve their writing and their reading skills. According to Vygotsky (1978), many relationships that first appear in a group activity are later internalized by the student as the relations between his or her inner intellectual processes. For these students, helping each other optimized their zones of proximal development. Further, because the whole person is involved in joint activity, there is an identity-forming effect of this assistance (Wells, 2000).

Nadia explained in an interview, “I think the most important part is working with others even if they don’t have the same thing (topic).... Like if I don’t understand something I can ask somebody else and probably you would think that they would know about it.” Juan added, “Nadia helps me with reading because she can tell me and I can put it in my own words when I’m writing.”

Of the thirteen students, eleven said that helping each other was an important element in their research work. Only Miguel and Gilda said that it was easier for them to mainly work by themselves. They said they could focus on their work better. It’s interesting, however, that I often observed Miguel helping others in the computer lab or Gilda helping others by translating into Portuguese. For them it seemed that it was more important to help than be helped.

For Melina, working together was the most significant part of the research project. In her final evaluation, she stated, “By doing this project, I have changed in a lot of different ways, one example is that I have learned how to have more patience with people that wants [*sic.*] to help me, and also how I can help my fellow classmates.” To another question, she answered, “The most important part of this project for me as a person is learning how to help other classmates and being nice to teachers.” For Melina, this was the most significant part of the project. In the beginning of the year, she was sullen and seemed unengaged with the project. However, as the year progressed, Melina formed new friendships and learned to finish her written report with the help of her friends. She smiled and kidded more with her teachers. For Melina researching became a vehicle to become a mature learner and friend.

Digging for More Information

From January through the beginning of May we booked the computer lab for at least two periods a week. These were the crucial times for finishing up Internet searches, drafting, revising, and writing the final draft. This proved invaluable in our long range planning and we were lucky to have these resources available to us.

We also got into the habit of meeting first at the center table in the lab, and discussing the expectations for the day. This was where mini-lessons might happen or handouts given. When they needed help from each other they were free to move, but our expectations were clear: this was an important working space.

On this particular day in January, Mariela found an endless amount of information. When we asked her where she found it, she explained, "I went to Alta Vista and typed in "History of Belly Dancing" surrounded by quotes and it worked!" She was excited to show me the new information she found; she kept saying to me, "Don't go! Look what else I found! Belly dancing is a connection between the mind and body!"

"What do you think that means, Mariela, a connection between the mind and body?" I asked.

"I think it means something to do with the spirit because my notes say that belly dancing was religious, too, in the ancient times."

When I worked with Mariela in the classroom, I helped her to interpret some of the text; the reading level was too hard for her mainly because of the vocabulary. Now, she was able to interpret the text and organize her notes into categories. Another breakthrough that Mariela made that day was finding a way to remember new words: "I need to write down the meaning of the words!" she said, and started to write down the

meaning of the difficult words in her passages. She realized that these key words were important to the meaning of the text.

Roberto was still exploring. Even though I brought him some primary sources on D-Day about which he had expressed an interest, he did not do much with this topic. Instead, he told me about a web site on WWII and went on to print out a military manual by the Chinese philosopher Sun-Tzu called *The Art of War*. Roberto claimed that all the great leaders had read this manual, including Napoleon and Hitler. When I asked him how he was going to use this information in his report he said he would highlight the important points about being a great military leader. Roberto had so many ideas and I was continually surprised by his knowledge. He told me he found out about this military manual in a video game and then went on a search for it. I found these maxims from Sun-Tzu in Roberto's notes: "Don't try to run. You'll only die tired," and "If someone smiles when everything goes wrong, then they have someone in mind to blame."

I was fascinated by this book, so I borrowed it from Roberto. In fact, I have learned much from my students' projects this year. I believe that our learning together and our mutual excitement about ideas was crucial to the success of this yearlong project. This kind of discovery kept our students engaged for the entire year. Students did not get bored because there was always much to learn from each other. Hence, I suggest that learning is optimal within this kind of collaborative inquiry community (Wells, 2000).

Roberto demonstrated to me how students' curiosity during research leads some students down divergent paths. In conversations, often, in the computer lab, Roberto told me about other sites he had found on WWII on an HBO site. He also told me he watched the History Channel a lot so he knew a lot about World War I and II. Trusting Roberto to

find his focus was my key in giving Roberto confidence in his abilities; insisting that he focus too early would just inhibit his process of discovery. I had continual conversations with him to answer questions and guide him with my own curiosity. I hoped that these conversations would eventually give Roberto the incentive to finally begin to write some of what he had learned. "After all," he said, "I study for me, not for a job!" For Roberto, studying was becoming part of his identity as a researcher and a learner.

Miguel was another student who needed to trust his own process; and therefore, so did I. The amount of library research he had done was prodigious, but his notes were very scant. Even though he had not taken many notes, he had absorbed a lot of information and had become a serious researcher. For example, in an interview with him he declared:

"The most interesting thing is the whole project--everything is interesting because there's like all of this new stuff that I didn't know like the Big Dig in Boston: I didn't know that they were going to put thirty-six miles under the ground or something like that, so it's, like, interesting. I get to know that and when I get through the underground I'll know where I am so it's, like, all new tech, it's interesting." To me this quote illustrates how Miguel took charge of his own learning. He made his own decisions about his next literacy tasks.

As I observed him in the lab that day, he showed me how he used two computers at once. He sat in the corner working on both computers as he traveled to different web sites. He printed out information on The Big Dig, civil engineering, buildings and structures, and some history of building. He then stapled each section he found, and began highlighting parts he found important. He even went to the public library site and

declared, “You know when I ask for these books at the library, they say they are too new for them to have. Can you imagine that?”

Providing Structure to the Note Taking Process

In early February, I gave students my projected rubric in order to emphasize deadline dates and the steps in the research process. The first seven steps counted for sixty percent of the grade, as this represented the process grade. The last eight steps counted for forty percent, which comprised the product grade. Table 4.2 shows the criteria that I gave them.

Table 4.2 Criteria for Grading

| |
|---|
| Part I: 60% |
| 1. Research: at least 5 different kinds of sources |
| 2. Use of Internet: search engines, etc. |
| 3. Three data sources outside of books and Internet: interviews, photos, diagrams, tables, etc. |
| 4. Note taking: paraphrasing, organization of notes (dates, sections): at least 10 pages of notes |
| 5. Organization of notes for drafting |
| 6. Drafting process: section headings, organization, etc. First draft due March 29 |
| 7. Bibliography and citation of sources |
| Part II: 40% |
| 1. Sentence complexity, use of transitions, number of clauses, varied sentences |
| 2. Use of academic vocabulary specific to topic and research |
| 3. Ability to summarize |
| 4. Ability to paraphrase |
| 5. Organization: coherence of information, topic sentences, use of transitions |
| 6. Mechanics: verb tenses, pronoun agreement, etc. |
| 7. Final Written Project due May 6 |
| 8. Final Presentation with Display Board due May 29 |

I asked students to keep this list of criteria in their notebooks as a guide. I revised it after students’ first drafts were passed in to show a definite point system and a

tightening up of each section so we could more easily evaluate the difference between the process and the product grade. For now, this projected rubric was a way for all of us to keep organized, and it helped me guide my mini-lessons.

Scaffolding the Process

Color-coding and naming sections

After discussing the rubric with the class, I put Mariela's notes on the overhead to show how she was going about naming sections. She had named sections according to the information she had found: The History of Dance, Frequently Asked Questions, Body Type, and Make-Up. I suggested that the students could go through their own notes and name their sections if they hadn't already done so, and then color-code them according to specific sections. This would help them find the different topics easily when they started drafting. We provided each table with a set of colored highlighters.

The cooperating teacher and I then worked with students individually to help them with naming sections. I worked with Juan who was highlighting just about everything. I suggested that he only highlight section topics and then write in the margins the names of those sections. I modeled my process for him:

“See, Juan, under foods we can put the foods into categories such as seasonings, meats, vegetables, and fruits. See, I'm highlighting these sections in blue and writing their names in the margins. Now you try doing the same thing with your notes about music.”

As I helped students see my process, they caught on quickly. I had Mariela, Darlana, and others who felt confident labeling help their classmates. My cooperating teacher captured this vignette in her field notes:

“Darlana caught on quickly and then she helped Mariela; she was very patient with her. I sent Darlana over to Carolina because I was busy, and when I checked I saw that she had made tremendous progress. She had made the following categories: definition, kinds of drugs, U.S. rate of drug abuse, law enforcement, dependence, what parents can do, and how drugs work.” After Darlana helped Carolina form her categories, Carolina was able to continue forming sub-categories such as alcohol, barbiturates, cocaine, and ecstasy under Kinds of Drugs, and how drug abuse affects the poor under U.S. Rate of Drug Abuse. I interpret this action as meaning that Darlana had provided the peer mediated help that Carolina needed to go beyond her present zone of proximal development to the next stage where she was able to continue this task on her own. I further suggest that these kinds of interactions contributed to the identity formations of both Darlana and Mariela as researchers.

From this data, I interpret that students were able to push their zones of proximal development further ahead as they used the scaffolding of their peers to make gains in their knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978). Wells suggests that far from simply being a better pedagogical method, the ZPD offers an “insightful and theoretically coherent way of thinking about the complex nature of the transformations that are involved in learning and of the multiple ways in which learning can be assisted” (1999, p. 334).

All thirteen students commented how this color-coding had helped them with the organization of their reports. For example, Felicia said, “I think that when you highlight with colors, it helps so much like if I put red and that’s ‘testing’ and if I go to the computer I just look at the red sections.”

For Gilda, color-coding proved very helpful because she had thirty-eight pages of notes. She told me in her interview: “I put colors and put the title and I circled it with the color; for example, abortion, I put in pink. Everything that talks about abortion I put it in pink and circle it and that’s the way I do it.” When I asked her how that helped, she declared, “Because if I didn’t do it like that before I would have to read everything to find maybe one sentence, but now when I’m thinking about how I want to talk about the risks, I can just go and find the parts that talk about risks and read the sentences that talk about that topic.... Putting things in order makes life easy!”

This process was crucial in helping Gilda organize a basic outline for her paper. She was able to tell me at this point how she was planning to write her paper: “Like I will start with the history like teens talking about their history and then I will put making decisions about doing it or abstinence and then the risks of teen pregnancy, the symptoms....” Gilda had been living with her questions all year. Her topic became, in some sense, part of her. She told me that at home she would write what she knew about her topic from memory. To see her work done was exciting to her: “I could see my work done. The days that I was working hard it was on my mind. Everything I read and that I wrote, like twenty pages, it’s all in my mind, not only on the paper, but that’s the exciting thing!”

To me what was exciting was that at each stage of the research process, students were making new discoveries about themselves as learners and researchers. In addition, the data from their reflections and interviews suggest that they were developing confidence in their ability to write because they had been immersed in their topics all

year. They knew their topics inside and out. They were eager to communicate what they had learned.

Outlining

After students had color-coded their notes, I showed them how to further organize their notes into sub-headings. I said this kind of outlining would help them get ready for drafting when we went to the computer later that week. I used students' notes as examples. I started with Mariela asking her for one of her major sections. She gave me "History," which I wrote on the overhead as Roman numeral I. Then I asked her to look for other sections about history and she gave me "Middle East," which I wrote as capital A. I explained that each sub-section was now named with a capital letter of the alphabet. The outline eventually looked like this:

I. History

- A. Middle East
- B. Ancient Times
- C. Other Places
- D. Meanings

I followed this with two more examples, using Darlana's and Mario's sections as models. I found through experience that giving just one example was not enough. Students needed to process the new information through several examples. Now I asked them to go over their sections and write an outline of all their sections.

As I observed students, some needed more help than others. Miguel was panicked that he was all disorganized again; he needed reassurance that his notes were adequate and he didn't have to do them over or throw them out. I noticed that Roberto

was just writing his outline, barely looking at his notes: his material was all in his head. I commented to the class that they were all able to do this step easily because they knew their material so well; they had been living with it all year.

I reinforced their outlining skills by bringing them to the computer lab the next day to use the program *Inspirations*. I wanted to demonstrate on the LCD projector the process of Rapid Fire. Rapid Fire is a feature of the program *Inspirations* that allows students to quickly make webs of topic headings and then allows them to change these graphics into outlines. I thought this would be very helpful for students as they began organizing their notes.

I had difficulty making the program work, but Mario came to my rescue. He modeled his own process using his notebook as he talked through each step he was taking. Meanwhile, my cooperating teacher and I circulated around the room, making sure the students understood how to use the program. Mario showed the others how to go from the diagram back to an outline. Some students, like Miguel, Roberto, and Berndt, got creative by adding symbols to their graphics. When students finished this step, I felt confident that they could move on to drafting their notes the following week. They had the basic organization for their paper in front of them.

Summary of Findings, March, 2002

During this note taking stage, there were common threads in all of the students' interviews and reflections. They all believed that they now could write in phrases, although summarizing and putting things in "our" own words was the most difficult part of note taking, but just by "doing it" they believed that they got better at it. They all agreed that organizing their notes by color-coding and outlining had helped them to

clarify their thinking. Beyond these common threads, each student gained new insights about what they had learned and what they were discovering about themselves as readers, writers, and researchers.

First, they were developing confidence in their new skills—they all asserted that they never would have believed that they could have done such a huge project, but now they could do it. As Miguel said in an interview, “I have learned that I could get to read more, to do more stuff, get to write and that if I want to do something I can do it!” Juan agreed. “I learned a lot of stuff like before I didn’t think I was going to get this far through research so I didn’t think I could do it!”

Second, students said that they were becoming better writers through the note taking process. Nadia declared, “I learned to become a better writer because I started writing and I liked it like now I write a lot of stuff I used to...have friends in Florida that I never used to write to but now after this project, I write to them all the time.” Felicia said that researching had helped her focus so she could write better: “At the beginning like the teachers had to say, Felicia, sit down and write and now sometimes the teachers say [that] but not always and now I learn how to write and every time they say it’s time to research, then I start to research.” For Felicia and Nadia, having confidence in their ability to write in English was a big breakthrough. Because they were writing more, they were developing more confidence in their writing skills.

Third, students asserted that writing better was also connected to reading more. Felicia noted in an interview: “My reading has improved; in class I highlight what’s most challenging.” Mariela also said that by doing challenging work, she was feeling

more confidence in her abilities. She said that she learned that “I can do it, I can research stuff just if I want to cause I [thought] I couldn’t do it.”

I interpret students’ use of the word “challenging” as a key element in their developing confidence as researchers and writers. The more they believed in themselves, the better their English skills had become. Both Cummins (1996) and Freeman and Freeman (2002) suggest that providing challenging activities increases both students’ confidence in their second language abilities and also accelerates their learning of academic English.

Fourth, doing challenging work was linked to students’ declarations that research was hard but it was worth all the effort. Gilda wrote in her February reflection: “With research my English improved. I learned that research is not only copying stuffs [*sic.*] from the book or summarizing it, but read, understand, and write what you learned. Research is not easy, you got to do step by step and do it carefully. Things have to be in order and nothing can be destroyed. At the end I’ll put everything in order and do a very good job.”

Mariela also agreed that research is hard work. She wrote, “I have learn[ed] that we have to work hard to fine [*sic.*] what we want. In the research class Miss Bear[se] told me every day to fine more and more stuff about my topic so I learn that is not so hard to fine something about my topic. One more thing that I learn is that it is very important to have my notebook organized because it is easier to fine what I want. The another thing is that we have to label everything that we write because it’ll help [me keep track of] what I need to write.”

Roberto added that researching takes a long time, but if you're interested in the topic and you stay organized, then it is easier. He said in a March interview: "If you organize your notes, it makes it easier for you to revise them and you have to take the bibliography of the book and you can learn a lot of research. You need to research and study and you do something you like so that helps a lot and research can be books.... [I]f you publish a book of your research that would be nice." He added that now he liked to write because he was writing about something he cared about: "One year ago I didn't like to write at all but now I know that I'm writing something that I like. It's good."

In the next section, Part III, I suggest that students continue to develop their identities as researchers and writers. They begin to take charge of their own writing as a result of renewed confidence in their writing ability. Part III describes this stage of the research process—drafting.

Part III: Drafting

Introduction

The drafting stage continued to develop students' identities as researchers and writers. They were also learning a secondary discourse as described by Gee (1990). Hence, they were manipulating text in sophisticated ways and they were beginning to write in an academic voice. The three generative themes of learning English, becoming writers and researchers, and helping each other, continued to develop through this drafting stage.

Just as I provided structures during the researching and note taking phases, I provided structure to the drafting process by giving mini lessons about writing in an academic voice. Then, as students completed each section of their research paper, I would read and give feedback with suggestions on what to do in the next computer lab. This feedback often came as group directions, individual sticky notes with comments on editing and revising, and individual conferencing. Students appreciated this advice, and this kind of structure helped the computer lab times run smoothly because each student was focused and knew exactly what he/she had to do.

Developing An Academic Voice

After we returned from a weeklong vacation in February, I decided to do my first lesson on academic research writing by showing students how to write the beginning or introduction of a research paper. I put on the overhead one of my graduate school research papers and explained that the introduction presents an overview to the reader about what the research paper is about. I pointed out three main areas: my formal language, such as "the purpose of this paper is to examine....," my use of transition words

such as first, secondly, and thirdly, and my section headings in bold print. I then gave them a copy of my paper together with a list of possible transition words to use in their writing.

As a second step, I asked them to look at their outlines to decide what their titles would be and to decide on the purpose of their papers. I explained that the purpose of the paper meant that they needed to explain to the reader what they were going to read about. Students needed a lot of individual help with this task because most were having a difficult time going from their outline to writing complete sentences. After I pointed out that each section of the outline could now become first, second, or third paragraphs, they caught on quickly.

My cooperating teacher noted in her field notes that she helped Gilda organize her nine outline topics into three major categories: Making Decisions, Reactions of Family and Boyfriend, and Symptoms of Pregnancy. Then, Gilda helped Felicia put her major headings into paragraphs. Once a few students started understanding and writing, they were able to help others and the process went smoothly so that they were able to write a first draft of the introduction by the end of the period. As they mediated learning for each other, they were able to move on to their next literacy tasks.

When I read the first drafts, I was proud of their work, but I noticed that their writing was very mechanical. So, the next day I did a revision lesson explaining that I wanted them to add a first paragraph describing why they were interested in their topic. This paragraph would add their voice to the writing, persuading readers of the importance of their topic to their unique interests.

I also wanted them to think of a more exciting title that would capture the reader's attention. I then discussed how the use of startling statistics could grab the reader's attention if used in the first paragraph. I gave them another one of my research papers for a model that included statistics in my first paragraph as an attention grabber.

Next, I pointed out Miguel's title, "The History and the Amazing Structures Built by Civil Engineers and Architects." I said that this title made me want to read Miguel's paper because I wanted to find out more about these amazing structures. Students had time in class to work on their new first paragraph and their new titles. Then we would go to the computer lab and type the introductions.

Developing Coherent Identities

When students arrived at the computer lab, they were told to get their research notebooks and begin typing their introductions and titles. After noticing a lot of fancy fonts for titles and writing of paragraphs, I stopped the class to explain that in a research paper, we would be using a formal font like Ariel or New Times Roman and everything had to be typed in a size 12 font. I added that I also wanted the papers to be the same so we could make a book of our research for the school library. In order to compromise over protests, I promised them that they could make a copy in fancy fonts for themselves, but for our book, I needed everyone's fonts to be the same.

As I surveyed the titles I enjoyed seeing the variety and the attempt to use colorful adjectives. Some of the titles are shown on Table 4.3:

Table 4.3 Titles of Students' Projects

| |
|--|
| "The Mysterious Dance of Morocco: Belly Dancing" (Mariela) |
| "The Exciting History of Jet Engines" (Berndt) |
| "How Does Teen Pregnancy Affect The Community?" (Gilda) |
| "The Rich Culture of Brazil" (Melina) |
| "Live Free Without Drugs" (Carolina) |
| "One Shot, One Kill, No Exceptions: Snipers" (Mario) |
| "Aids: A Worldwide Epidemic" (Tania) |
| "Puerto Rico: Rediscovering My Island" (Juan) |
| "The Fashion World" (Darlana) |

The students' introductions were also beginning to take shape. For example, in Gilda's first draft of the introduction, she began with the following lines: "The purpose of this paper is to examine the issues surrounding teen pregnancy. I will look at nine various topics ranging from peer pressure to parenting responsibility." However, she used statistics in her rewrite of the introduction. She wrote the following revision in the computer lab:

Did you know that 48% of teens around the age of 18 get pregnant each year? What are some reasons? Do they want it? What can we do about it?"

Teen pregnancy is an effect that makes many people, no matter if they are adults or teens, feel sad and worried because when it happens many bad effects come after. If a teen that is in high school gets pregnant, her future will probably be financially poor. She would have to stop going to school, wouldn't have the opportunity to go to college, so this girl will never be independent which is not good.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the issues surrounding teen pregnancy. I will look at nine various topics ranging from peer pressure to parenting responsibility.

From this revision we can see that Gilda used statistics to grab the reader's attention. She also wrote in her personal voice, telling what this issue meant to her. Then

she continued with the academic format. She kept this introduction for her final draft with a few minor changes.

In contrast, Mario had to write his introduction many times because he had trouble focusing his topic and finding enough information because his notes were scant.

In his first draft, he wrote:

The purpose of this paper is to explore career choices for my future. I chose this topic because I want to be a sniper so I decided to learn about it, and I like to live on the edge. The more I study about it, the more I want to be a sniper. I will look at SWAT, snipers, and the FBI. First, I will look at the FBI laboratory and SWAT team including the talkers, shooters, the entry team, and the history. And after that I will talk about guns which includes, Rifles, Handguns, and Shotguns.

This first draft was a very good beginning for Mario. His sentences had become much clearer and he had written a new expression “living on the edge” which he had picked up during one of our interviews. However, I still wanted Mario to develop more focus in his paper. After many individual conferences with Mario about focusing his topic on the material that he knew the most about, he eliminated the FBI and concentrated on the SWAT team and their training. I also advised him that it would be appropriate to talk about guns only in the context of weapons training.

This is what he wrote in his final revision:

The purpose of this paper is to explore career choices for my future. I chose this topic because I want to become a sniper so I decided to learn something about it, and I like to live on the edge. The more I study about it the more I want to be a sniper. On this paper I will talk about the SWAT team, the three groups that are on the SWAT. And I will talk about sniper; the history of sniper in the USA, and then I will talk about the way that the sniper should move, when they should move, and I will talk for those that want to become a sniper like me.

In this revision, Mario explains how his purpose for writing was to explore career choices for his future. For Mario and others in this class, exploration of career choices is an

important aspect of adolescent identity formation. For Erickson (1968), “the choice of an occupation assumes a significance beyond the question of remuneration and status” (p. 129). The choice becomes integral to the larger needs of coherence that determines identity.

Other students in the class also found that they needed to rewrite their introductions at the end of their writing because their paper had evolved differently through the drafting process. As Mariela said, “The introduction was really hard because I put more stuff so I had to do it all over again, so I had to go back and read what I wrote.” When Mariela became more aware of her textual needs, she was able to go back and forth in her drafting process to clarify her writing as she made meaning of the text.

Carolina revised her introduction several times because she realized as she was drafting that she wanted to organize her paper about drugs in a different way. I suggest that both Carolina and Mariela demonstrated to me the writing process in action. As these students wrote, they were continually thinking on paper and making revisions to their thinking during the drafting process.

The introductions revealed to me that students were now taking more charge of their writing. They were able to initiate their own revisions that showed more passion for their topic. They were able to make metatextual decisions about what to do next. For instance, both Juan and Melina emphasized their cultural identity. Juan wrote, “Although I lived in Puerto Rico for the first five years of my life, I know very little about this Caribbean Island. In researching Puerto Rico, I hope to feel more connected to my family and culture.” Even though my cooperating teacher helped Juan write this, I

interpret this as Juan expressing his need to form a coherent identity by making a cultural connection in his research (Erickson, 1968).

Melina also expressed pride in her culture with her introduction. She wrote, “Did you know that Brazil is the largest country of South America? And that the biggest rain forest of the world is located in Brazil? Well, get ready to learn all that and much more fascinating facts about the rich culture of Brazil. In this research project, what I decided to do is tell everyone about my beautiful and rich country, Brazil, and by the way that I’m very proud of it.”

Melina, I suggest, was writing her identity as she wrote about Brazil. Even though, Melina has been in this country for almost four years, her culture seems to be the most important part of her identity. Her research project allowed Melina the opportunity to express her cultural pride while she was developing her writing skills.

In this context, then, language (writing) is seen as a rhetorical tool that helps second language students persuade others of their cultural identity. Penue1 and Wertsch (1995) suggest that “identity be conceived as a form of action that is first and foremost rhetorical, concerned with persuading others (and oneself) about who one is and what one values to meet different purposes (p. 91).

Drafting with a Purpose: Collaborative Inquiry in the Computer Lab

As students were finalizing their first drafts, they were at all stages of refining their work. Some were still just trying to complete typing ten pages. Others were working on rephrasing their sentences. And still others were doing sophisticated revising while they were writing. My cooperating teacher and I sat next to the students who needed the most attention and then moved around the room to see where each student

was in his or her writing. We continually reminded students to save their work often, both to the hard drive and to a disc. I also showed students how to type headers so we could have an accurate date for each section that they had typed. Page numbers were also to be placed in the top right hand corner.

Students continued to help each other. Mario and Miguel became the resident computer experts, so they could help students with computer questions when we were busy helping students with drafting. Other students were expert at pasting data from the Internet. My cooperating teacher noted in her field notes: "Bears uses the students for computer knowledge constantly." In this way, students could demonstrate their proficiency as researchers and drafters using the computer.

For example, Melina helped Tania with an Internet search. She was showing Tania how to deepen her search about AIDS. She also looked at Tania's notebook sections and showed her how to get more information for her various headings. Tania was then able to download the nine stages of cell development in AIDS, and then Melina showed her how to add these pictures to her text. In another instance, Nadia was having a problem with making her spell check work.

"Can anyone help Nadia with her spell check?" I asked.

Carolina volunteered and after a few minutes she was able to fix this computer glitch, while I had been struggling for five minutes to figure it out. I think it's important for students to see that I am always learning and don't always know the answers.

More and more students were now using the computer thesaurus to help them rewrite or look up the meaning of new words. Others used the thesaurus because they wanted to vary the use of the same word. At one point, Gilda called me over to the

computer and asked me what word she could use besides “decide” since she had used this word too many times. She had accessed the computer thesaurus and didn’t know which English word would be the best choice. Of the words given, we decided that “conclude” worked the best in her context. Her sentence now read, “Some people conclude not to use condoms or pills against pregnancy....” This demonstrated to me the various steps involved in drafting, and also how bilinguals could expand their vocabulary by using a thesaurus. Through researching, Gilda was developing her academic voice in writing as well as adding a secondary discourse to her repertoire of literacy tasks.

Miguel continued to insist on cutting and pasting his notes without reading them ahead of time. I said to him, “Okay, now you can do it your way, but if it doesn’t work, then you have to do it my way.” As it turned out later in the period, Miguel admitted his way was not working: “*Ay, Maestra*, it’s not working! Can you help me?” So, I sat with him and we reorganized his notes into paragraphs of similar information. As I read over his draft, he still needed a lot of help in organization and sentence structure. Miguel had been such a diligent researcher and had a lot of information in his head, but his main problem was writing a coherent draft and having the patience to follow through with my suggestions. I knew now that whenever I heard from Miguel, “*Ay, Maestra*,” he was feeling frustrated or overwhelmed. I learned over the year not to push Miguel too hard. He wanted to figure things out for himself, but he began to learn when he was in trouble and needed help.

Nadia also had a difficult time writing sentences from her notes. When sitting beside her, I would ask her to clarify some of her sentences: “What are you trying to say here?” As she said the sentences out loud, she typed the new sentences. She knew what

she wanted to say but needed to hear the sentences out loud before she could write them. I noticed that for students who were struggling with writing, this strategy of saying the sentences out loud often allowed them to figure out the best way of formulating the sentences in ways that made sense.

Mario also needed this kind of guidance because he had just copied most of his draft from the Internet. As we went over his draft line by line, he admitted that he didn't understand what he was reading. I said to him that if he really wanted to be a sniper, then he needed to understand what he was writing about. He agreed with me, and we spent many extra hours going over each of his sentences line by line. As I read each sentence, I would stop and have Mario explain to me what I had just read. When he couldn't, we went over the sentence word by word and found the words that were blocking the comprehension.

For example, one sentence had the phrase "lent his considerable influence to the project." After looking at the words that came before and after this phrase, Mario figured out that it had to do with giving knowledge to others. I explained to Mario that there was an English expression, "spread his knowledge," which he could use to write his own sentence. Mario would write this phrase over the phrase copied from the Internet, and then we would move on to the next stage. In this way, Mario was not only learning new vocabulary, but he was learning to understand what he read. This would help him when he began drafting again. Our rule became, "If you don't understand it, don't write it."

Mario affirmed in an interview that it was important to tell him "the weakest point, what I should improve, that helps...." He also said that his comprehension was improving because of our working together sentence by sentence: "I didn't know

everything I wrote and that I should put things like in my own words, things I can understand...definitely, I'm learning new vocabularies." Like Gilda, Miguel, and Nadia, Mario was developing his academic voice by experimenting with a secondary discourse.

Providing Structure through Feedback

In the middle of March, my cooperating teacher suggested to me that typing up of general feedback would help students focus on completing their first drafts by March 28. I found that the most important advice to give at this point was to reiterate the necessity of writing a research paper in one's own words. The following feedback page was explained and then put in the front of each students' research notebooks:

Figure 4.1 Feedback from Ms. Bearse to Research Class: March 19, 2002

I have noticed the following things for everyone to work on as they are drafting:

1. Do not copy notes directly. Write sentences in your own words. If you use someone else's words, you must use quotes and tell where you found your source of information.
2. Include graphs and charts to demonstrate knowledge of topic. Tell or cite your source of information. If you have not done this, do it in the next two weeks.
3. Make sure sentences are clear. Read them out-loud or read them to someone else to see if they make sense..
4. Write from your passion, your knowledge of the topic. You know most of the information—it's in your head. Write from that knowledge.
5. If you need more information, now is the time to do more research.
6. You need at least 10 typewritten pages double spaced. Remember this is a year long research project. Your job is to demonstrate your knowledge of your topic.
7. Citations: A quick lesson:
 - You must cite your source if you use quotes. Use (year of publication, author or internet site, p. number)
 - If you quote statistics, you must cite the source. Again, use (year of publication, author, page number)
 - If you are stating important facts that only you could have received from a book or the Internet, you must cite the source. Again, use (year of publication, author, page number)

- This is a research paper. You must be able to show where you got your information!!
8. First draft is due March 28. That means you have 9 days to work on your project. We will be available for after school help, if you need it. You **MUST** be productive in the computer lab. In 2 hrs you must produce at least 4 typewritten pages. If not, you are not attending to the task.
 9. I am impressed with how well most of you are working. The main thing now is to write in your own words, and follow my directions in doing revisions as we go along. These suggestions are to be taken seriously—they are meant to help you to improve your final paper and your final grade.
 10. When you are finished with your final draft, you will be amazed at yourself. All this hard work pays off.

I found that these general feedback pages coupled with individual conferencing and instructions on sticky notes were helping my students stay organized and focused. They always knew what their task was from my sticky notes. For example, this is what I had written on a few of Mariela's sticky notes: "Excellent job of editing! I think History of Belly Dancing should go first, then body type, etc., then renumber your pages."

On an earlier sticky note, I wrote: "I am so proud of your work!! You have included a lot of very good information! I think you may want to change your title because you are talking also about the Middle East. Also, look at each page to fix editing mistakes and rewrite some words."

My cooperating teacher would also read my sticky notes and then give students a second sticky note with a grade based on their production for the computer lab period. Hers was a purely process grade. I edited for grammar for each section passed in and I was beginning to notice a general pattern of errors, chief among which was the use of commas to separate sentences. There were also subject-verb and pronoun agreement and

tense problems. I believed that my editing helped students see the standard use of grammar conventions, and I noticed that these problems did decrease as the final drafts were written. Students were learning to use the conventions of grammar both through modeling and through practice in the context of working on an authentic literacy task (Goodman & Goodman, 1990).

Student Reflections on Teacher Feedback

Students acknowledged that this kind of feedback was very important to them. In an interview I asked Roberto if he thought teacher feedback had helped him with the writing of his project. He answered, “Yuh, it tells me what I’m doing wrong and if I should concentrate on something else or if you can’t understand something that I wrote that really helped me.... I think when you write something it’s really helpful if someone reads it and tells you what’s wrong with the paper you wrote, it helps a lot.”

Mariela explained that the sticky notes had helped her because “like I need to write something, fix something, change my titles, and write more stuff in the paragraphs, stuff like that.” She continued by saying that individual conferences also helped her because “we don’t learn if a teacher doesn’t explain it; when they explain we can do more, it’s kind of easy.”

During a focus interview, Carolina, Juan, Darlana and Miguel all agreed that teacher feedback had helped them in different ways:

Carolina: “It [the use of sticky notes] makes you try to make it better, the research better.... The notes are helpful and [so is] talking to you.”

Darlana: I think the notes were good because sometimes you think it’s perfect but your notes help me go to the part that I need to fix.”

Juan: “[The notes remind me about] putting things in my own words and organizing the information.”

Miguel: “The notes and you talking to me helped me a lot because you sort of gave me ideas how to do the work, what I was doing wrong, or what I should do next, so you gave me directions.”

According to Torres-Guzman and Thorne (2000), this kind of feedback acknowledges for Latino students the importance of teacher caring. In their study of Latino adolescents’ perceptions, teacher caring was associated with students’ willingness to learn and put more effort into their work. Similarly, Chavez (1997), when writing about achieving equity for Latino students, declared that teachers must play a central role in developing relationships with their students that is rooted in respect, dignity, and high expectations.

Providing after school help was another way of supporting students’ efforts in finishing their first drafts. For example, Roberto, Miguel, Juan, Nadia, and Berndt still had more work to do to complete the requirements. Roberto was writing brilliantly about WW I and WW II, so it seemed that he had finally found what he would like to focus his writing on. As I watched him compose, I noticed that he barely looked at his notes, and then he wrote what he had just read. I suggested at this point that he might want to focus on these two wars as he was far behind the others in producing text. Roberto finally agreed to this plan, adding that he wanted to write a section on the Russo-Japanese war because he felt that this war connected to WW I. I told him I would support his renewed effort by staying after school with him. For Miguel, Juan, and Roberto these

after school times proved invaluable in giving them the extra time they needed to write and the opportunity to ask for help.

I suggest that this kind of individual conferencing was one of the key elements in helping these ESL students succeed in writing sophisticated research reports. The research on second language writing supports my own findings that both teacher feedback and individual conferencing accelerate the development of adolescent writing (Reyes, 1991, 1992; Hudelson, 1988; McClaine, 1986; Cumming, 1998; Valdes, 1999, 2001).

Writing The Final Draft

After reading the first drafts, I noticed some common areas of need in everyone's papers: organization of information into categories that made sense; use of commas in places that required periods; clarity of sentences; difficulty in paraphrasing and in choosing specific vocabulary that made sense; citing sources within the text; use of smooth transitions; and the printing of graphs with little understanding of their meaning. These observations helped me to devise my next series of lessons for writing the final draft. Some mini lessons that I had in mind were writing citations in text; writing a table of contents; writing a conclusion; preparing a bibliography and creating an appendix.

At the beginning of April, when students came to the computer lab, I gave them my newest feedback page. This page gave a listing of all that had to be included in the final draft of their research project:

Figure 4.2 Feedback on First Draft of Research Project: April 3, 2002, Ms. Bearse

Congratulations to everyone who completed their first draft of 10 double-spaced typed pages!! I am very proud of everyone's hard work.

Here is what we have to do now to complete the final draft which is due April 30, 2002.

- Read carefully all of my directions for revising and editing. As you complete each page of editing, make a check mark with a colored marker in the upper right hand corner. This tells me you have completed the editing and have followed my directions. Work is to be in your own words.
- Cite sources in the text. You must cite sources. This is a research paper. We will have another lesson on this.
- Create a bibliography. I will give you a sample bibliography to help you arrange all your sources in alphabetical order. This is the last page of your research paper.
- Create a Table of Contents. I will give you a sample.
- Create a Cover page. The cover page includes your project title (and question), your name, your teachers' names (Ms. Bearse & Ms. Hamilton), and the date of your final draft. You may decorate this page in whatever way you want. You just need to Center your name, etc.
- Check your first page. Does your first page reflect what you wrote or do you need to revise this page?
- Write a Conclusion. This conclusion discusses what you learned and your Findings. I will model what I expect.
- Have a separate section for your Interview, and your charts or graphs. What did you learn from the charts or diagrams. You need to explain. This is usually included in the Appendix of your Research paper.

In summary, your final paper must have this outline:

- Cover page
- Table of contents (All pages numbered)
- Introduction
- Body of research (pp.1-10 or more)
- Conclusion
- Bibliography
- Appendix, which includes your interview and your charts.

After going over the feedback page, students placed this in the front of their research binders. The first lesson I did that day was to review placing citations in the

text. I demonstrated with one of my own research pages that included some very basic citation procedures. This included naming the author and the year the book was published, and putting this in parentheses. If it was a quote they also had to put the page number where the page was found. If it was an Internet site, they also needed to include this information plus the URL address.

Students were then sent to their computers with their first drafts and suggestions for doing the next steps. Roberto had finally decided to concentrate his paper more on WW I and II. He called me over to see his new introduction and title: “World Dominance: A Dream Which Never Came True.” In his introduction, he wrote, “I am also fascinated by the political and economical consequences at the end of a war; for example, at the end of the Russo-Japanese War, Japan became a world power and it also gained Formosa (Taiwan) and other smaller island.” Notice the sophisticated use of language in these sentences. Roberto was writing about what he loved most—history. He had absorbed the vocabulary of a historian in such words as *political*, *economical*, and *consequences*. Roberto was always asking for the meaning of words as he read either in class or on the computer. That day he engaged me in many small conversations about his paper, like what is an Archduke, a Czar, a Count? We also talked about the poisonous gases used in WW I. As interested readers, Roberto and I were having a dialogue about this work while he was typing. When this kind of dialogue happens, I feel that it is a highpoint of my teaching. Through dialogue, Roberto and I had become learners on equal footing (see Freire, 1992).

Writing Conclusions: Developing A Secondary Discourse

The next two weeks were devoted to editing and adding more information to sections. As I looked over the requirements in the last feedback page, I knew that my next academic writing lesson would be to teach about writing conclusions. I brought in one of my research papers with the conclusions, and I explained that the conclusion page summarized what I had learned from doing research. It was also a place where I might make opinion statements about what I had found out based upon the data.

To prepare students to write their conclusions, I had them type up what they had learned so far without looking at their notebooks. They had a time limit of one half hour in which to do this. I wanted them to see that they indeed knew a lot about their topics. My cooperating teacher noted in her field notes the following details about students' writing: "The vocabulary that they are using is incredible! Darlana is using words like *photogenic*, and *flawless* and [shows] knowledge in clothing, make-up, and application."

While writing, Carolina called me over to ask what word meant "not being able to fix again.... You know, the one I used in my paper." I asked if "irreparable" was the word that she was looking for, and she immediately said, "Yes, that's the one!" Then she continued writing, using many terms related to the world of drugs. In this quick writing, students demonstrated to me that they had internalized their new knowledge. Each student had typed at least one full page filled with facts about their topic and some even added what new English skills they had learned.

For example, Melina's conclusion illustrated both her new knowledge and her continued pride in her culture:

...samba and capoeira was first danced by African slaves that were brought to Brazil to work for free in the fields, they usually danced to the rhythms at night after working all day in the fields, they used to say that this would make the stress and the laziness go away. And that the food and dances that are known [i.e., now] still eaten and danced in Brazil, were all influenced by the slaves.

She wrote in a reflection that: "I think what improved in my life after doing this yearlong project was that my vocabulary is much better, I have learned many new words and now that I know the culture of my country I can pass [the knowledge] on all the interesting facts I have learned to other people, so their minds can be enriched by this great culture."

Juan also affirmed that writing about Puerto Rico had been important to him:

"I've learned so much about Puerto Rico, like the places, the food, and the arts. I'm so glad because I've learned so many things about Puerto Rico that I didn't know before." He ended his conclusion by stating that his project had improved his English skills: "At first I had trouble changing the words of the book to my own words[. I]t was very hard, and also I improved my writing cause I had a lot of trouble understanding the words, the sentences. My English improved a lot doing this research project and when I had trouble understanding a word I had always somebody to help me out. My research skills has [*sic.*] improved so I know I can do research on something I want to learn."

Juan had shown considerable growth in his English skills that year. Even though he had been diagnosed with language processing and short-term memory problems, he was able to succeed in this project because of the intensive one-on-one help he received. He gained new confidence in his ability to write by being challenged to write beyond his zone of proximal development. He was so proud of his project that he asked me every day when he could take his project home.

After writing this draft of what they had learned, I told students to look in their notebooks to write their conclusions; they could incorporate what they had already written but now they were to write in a more formal way stating what they had learned. I suggested that one way they could do this was by using “bullets” to summarize their main points.

Juan demonstrated this transition to an academic voice in his final conclusion piece. He wrote the following:

“I have learned that the Puerto Rican food is kind of different from other countries.

- Adobo (seasoning)
- Alcaparrado
- Cilantro
- Gandules (Green pigeon peas)

I have learned that the Puerto Rican music is sort of different.

- Pablo Cassals was the first [Puerto Rican] person that composed the classical music.
- The Plena and bomba are the most popular dances in Puerto Rico.
- Plena is a song form performed by singers and features narrative lyrics that describe an individual or an important event.
- Spanish culture is present in the United States and has been since the country’s earliest beginnings.”

Juan continued to write for another page about what he had learned about Puerto

Rican holidays and crafts. He demonstrates to me that he is beginning to develop an academic voice and has learned to write in concise, clear sentences with specific details. This is an improvement over his previous draft, in which he wrote, “I’ve learned so much about Puerto Rico, like the places, the food, and the arts...”

Keeping Track

Some students were ready to write their Conclusion page as described in the above section. Others, however, still had more writing to do to complete their final draft. In order for students to keep track of what they had completed I gave them a Checklist that they had to have signed either by me or their teacher. Even with only twelve students in the class, keeping track of individual progress was difficult because students were at so many different stages in their final drafting process. To facilitate the completion of the final draft, students were given the following checklist to keep in their notebooks:

Table 4.4 Checklist for Final Drafting Process, April 12, 2002

As you finish each item, check it off and give the date finished. All work at this point must be passed in to Ms. Bearse/Ms Hamilton by the end of class. Final drafts will be kept in a separate notebook for your convenience.

| Task | Date finished | Comments |
|---|----------------------|-----------------|
| Finish writing 10-15 pages | | |
| Finish editing final draft including citations | | |
| Rewrite Introduction | | |
| Type Conclusion | | |
| Type bibliography (5) | | |
| Type table of contents | | |
| Type Title Page | | |
| Type Appendix Page | | |
| Add typed Interviews | | |
| Add graphs with explanation | | |
| Add photos or any other data sources | | |
| Put project together in project binder | | |
| Begin work on presentation | | |
| Finish poster board presentation piece | | |
| Present research to a larger audience | | |

I kept in my research binder a similar checklist, which gave me a clear picture of where every student was in completing the different sections of the final draft. (See Appendix D for this checklist.) I kept this notebook on the middle table in the computer lab, and students were excited to see each item checked off as they finished it.

Collaborative Inquiry: A Writing Community Blossoms

On non-computer days, students came together for a mini lesson or a discussion of the research process. Since it was just before April vacation, I thought I would ask students to brainstorm a list of how they were helping each other with their research projects. They came up with the following ideas:

- Shared notes
- Take graphs off internet and paste on web
- Mario helps in computers: internet and MS Word
- Help with spelling
- Help with notes
- Some people help by translating into Portuguese or Spanish
- Help others with organization
- Help with vocabulary
- Help in making sentences in our own words
- Work with each other
- Share interest and information

This list showed me that students were very much aware of the importance of working together. It also confirmed what they had been saying in the interviews and writing in their reflections. It occurred to me, too, that this class had developed into a writing community—writing, revising, and drafting together.

The concept of community solidified after April vacation. Carolina told me in homeroom on the first day back that Tania had been in a terrible car accident and that she

was in a coma. The Brazilian community was very much affected by this event and I knew our class would also be affected.

When students came to the computer lab that afternoon, I began by acknowledging how upset we all were by Tania's accident. We could all help with our positive thoughts and prayers and by carrying on with our projects. I praised Tania for almost completing her entire project and suggested that maybe we could help Tania finish her final draft. Gilda volunteered to work on the finishing touches of Tania's report. Melina, Felicia, and Carolina all volunteered to do different sections of her final project, too. This incident brought us even closer as a community of writers. It made me realize that as we shared each other's triumphs and tragedies during class, we were sharing our lives. To me that is what writing is all about, developing a sense of trust not only in ourselves as writers but trusting that we could share our writing with others without fear of annihilating our identities which we had so carefully written down on paper. (Tania did recover by the end of the year but could not come back to school. Her finished project became our gift to her.)

Creating The Finishing Touches

We had two weeks more to finish our research projects. We were under time constraints because the state testing would begin in the middle of May and everyone's schedule would be affected.

The last two mini lessons were on writing the bibliography and creating a table of contents. For teaching the bibliography, I again brought in one page of a bibliography I had written. I put it on the overhead and gave each student a copy. I went through each

line labeling authors, books, dates, use of italics, place of publication, and publisher. I also showed them an example of a web site citation.

Students were then to go into their notebooks and find their sources and do a first draft by writing down what they needed using my sample page as a guide. This proved to be a huge task, because even after our careful attention to detail, students had still forgotten to write down all the information that they needed. Like the citations, I knew their bibliographies would not be perfect, but they now were very aware of the information they needed.

Creating the table of contents was much easier. Students were given a copy of one of my pages and this served as an easy model to follow. This also reinforced for them the need to write section headings if they hadn't so far.

The last lesson was how to create an appendix. This appendix would include any interviews they had done, relevant maps, pictures, charts and graphs. The purpose for doing this was to find three sources on the Internet and then explain in their own words how these other data sources added to their project. This would add another dimension to their learning how to write critically in a secondary discourse.

Creating these finishing touches kept everyone focused in the computer lab. Giving students various choices also ensured differentiated instruction and allowed students to be creative in designing their last pages by creating an appendix of supporting materials for their projects.

Students were still at different stages, but they had become very much in charge of their own writing. They knew exactly what they wanted to do. For example, Mariela reworked her introduction because she realized that what she had written did not match

her report. She was so excited that she could do this by herself that she declared, “Look, Miss, I’m getting good at this!”

Gilda told me that she had noticed a mistake as she was rereading to write her conclusions and had to rearrange a section of her paper. She asked me how to print out only certain pages and then she worked steadily to complete the task. Gilda said in her last interview that this stage was the most difficult for her “because you have to do it again and again and again. Every time you do it you find mistakes.” By going through this stage, though, she had learned something valuable about the drafting process: “The most important [thing] is that every time you do it you have to check it and do it again, that’s what I learned. When I do something like homework, I just do it before [*sic.*] and don’t check or read it again, but now I learned that I made many mistakes so to go back and read and make the corrections.” This statement demonstrated to me how Gilda had internalized the process and was beginning to apply it to other aspects of her school life.

Miguel, as usual, had to do the parts his way. He asked to download pictures from the Internet and then place them into the sections of his project. For Miguel’s project about engineering and The Big Dig, this made a lot of sense, so we agreed that this would take the place of his appendix. Unlike most of the other students, Miguel had completed three interviews by asking teachers their opinions of The Big Dig and he incorporated these interviews into his introduction. By doing these things Miguel was in control of his project and he was beginning to feel more secure about his writing and organizational skills.

Students showed their creativity in many ways when they were designing their title pages. Roberto amazed us all by finding a quote from Winston Churchill for his

cover. He told me that when he saw this quote, he knew that it captured the images he wanted to describe in his paper. He found the following quote on the Internet:

Still if you fight for the right when you can easily win without bloodshed, if you will not fight when your victory will be sure and not so costly, you may come to the moment when you will have to fight with all of the odds against you and only a precious chance for survival. There may be a worse case. You may have to fight when there is no chance of victory, because it is better to perish than to live as slaves.

This quote reflects the complexity and depth of Roberto's thinking about history. He was truly passionate about his subject, and because of this passion his English vocabulary was becoming richer and deeper each day. The next day Roberto revised his cover to include all the flags of the Allies and the Axis powers with the Churchill quote under the flags.

Roberto expressed everyone's excitement as they were completing their projects. Every time he finished a completed page, he let out a big cheer and gave me the completed page to check off on my binder. Others who were finished helped in many other ways, too. Carolina designed the front cover for our book that will go in the library. Mariela helped Melina by typing some pages for her project on Brazil. Berndt finally completed his project on jet engines and disclosed that he wanted to be a pilot and that was the reason why he wanted to learn more about engines. Gilda finished working on Tania's project. I was so proud of her dedication! Her sweet fifteenth birthday party was coming up (*quinze anos*), and she had invited all her teachers to her big party. This, to me, was just another aspect of being connected to the Brazilian community as we shared life celebrations together.

Summary of Findings

Through the drafting stage, I suggest that students continued to develop their identities as researchers and writers. They began to take charge of their own writing by noticing what revisions they needed to do so their writing would become clearer. Also, drafting was not seen so much as a distinct stage but as part of the recursive process of drafting, revising, and editing.

Among the other findings inherent to the drafting process were the following:

- Structure was provided to the drafting process by giving mini lessons about writing in an academic voice and providing deadlines and checklists for completion of various writing tasks.
- Through the drafting process, students were developing their academic voice by engaging in a secondary discourse.
- Students continued to help each other by clarifying ideas in Portuguese and Spanish and by providing computer expertise to each other. They were developing into a community of writers.
- Students appreciated written teacher feedback and individual conferencing because it gave them specific help to improve their writing. They gained new confidence in themselves as writers.
- Students were using academic vocabulary in their writing as well as writing longer, more complex sentences. They continued to develop their identities as researchers and writers
- Collaborative research that emphasizes writing affirms and transforms personal, ethnic, and linguistic identities (Mercado, 1993).

Part IV: Publishing

Introduction

Roberto's earlier cheering at the completion of each stage of his writing tasks became a metaphor for everyone's excitement at accomplishing such a difficult task as writing a research report in English. This pride and confidence is clearly reflected in this section, which describes the last stage of the research process: rediscovering the research question, publication, celebration, and presentation.

Focusing The Research Questions: A Process of RE-discovery

Most students had not discovered their essential research question until the end of the process. Gilda was the only student who had begun with her question: "How Does Teen Pregnancy Affect the Community?" She knew at the beginning what her focus would be. For the others, they discovered their questions as they became more involved with their topics. I know that in my own process, my question became much clearer as I became more aware of the kinds of data I was collecting.

To help students prepare for their presentations, we brainstormed on the overhead possible research questions. I began with Gilda's question, "How Does Teen Pregnancy Affect the Community?" and pointed out how her question described her research project. I then asked the other students, "What was the central question you had answered by doing your research?"

Roberto began by suggesting: "What was common between WWI and WWII?" I went around and asked students for their questions. Melina insisted that she didn't have a question, but Gilda prompted her with, "Of course, you have a question!" Roberto then suggested, "What are the types of food, music, and dance in Brazil?"

Gilda also helped Felicia come up with her question, “What are the effects of teen pregnancy?” Felicia’s project differed in that she had focused on more the health issues related to teen pregnancy whereas Gilda had focused on the larger community questions. Their questions reflected this difference.

Mariela started with “what is belly dancing?” but I suggested that this didn’t seem to reflect all the research she had done. My cooperating teacher prompted her with the following question: “What does a belly dancer have to know?” Mariela loved this question and agreed that was what her project was about.

I found this exercise fascinating because to me it again reflected a community of writers at work, helping and brainstorming with each other. I also believe that this process is part of the cycle of inquiry described by Bruce and Davidson (1996). They suggest that for any problem, a learner should think of asking, investigating, creating, discussing, and reflecting as a means for its resolution. Throughout the research project, students had been engaged in this type of inquiry, both individually and collaboratively. Besides a community of writers, they had become an inquiry community, where there were deep connections among classroom activity, learning, and language (Bruce & Bishop, 2002).

Publishing

An important part of celebrating students’ writing accomplishments is publishing their work. The final stage of the writing process, publishing, is an act of celebration. For bilingual students, publishing takes on the added dimension of validating their successes in learning English. For example Mariela declared, “It’s kind of like when I told my mom that I was doing this project, she didn’t believe me, because she never saw

me do any project in English...[but] when she saw the books and saw the notes, she believed me, and was so proud!”

By May 7 all the students had completed their final drafts (unfortunately, Nadia had to move at the end of April because her mother could no longer stay in the United States). I also had them add to the last page of their written reports an “About The Author” page. This was a page where students could write about their backgrounds and their future goals. I gave them a basic framework to work from (see Appendix D). For example, Roberto wrote that he would be attending high school and he hoped he would continue to write about “stuff.” He continued, “I wish to study Introduction to Business in my elective class, German in my world language class, and world history. My future goal is to become a successful General in the Brazilian army. I also want to get married when I’m about 26 and have one boy. This is my first published research project.”

Publishing materials were readily available in our school, because as a school, we believed in publishing students’ work. So for our students’ books the *Ibico* publishing system of spiral bindings with clear plastic presentation covers was used. We were all excited to see our completed work done wrapped up in such a professional manner. Students would display their projects as part of their presentations.

Presentation Preparations

The last stage of the research process is presenting research to the larger school community. I explained that researchers often present their findings at conferences. Sometimes the research is presented on tri-fold display boards and people are invited to go around asking questions of each person who is standing before his/her display board. I wanted to give my students a chance to experience this kind of presentation because I

knew they had so much exciting knowledge to share. This kind of dialogue was the least threatening because students did not have to stand in front of a large audience; instead, they just had to answer questions by their invited guests.

I also suggest that this presentation was the culmination of the four primary interests of the learner as discussed by Dewey: inquiry, or investigation; communication; construction or the delight in creating things; and expression or reflection which is the desire to extract meaning from experience (Bruce & Bishop, 2002, p.707). In addition, this last stage of presentation required students to use rhetorical discourse to persuade others of the importance of their projects. In doing so, they were presenting their identities as researchers.

In order to get ready for the presentations, my cooperating teacher and I bought the display boards and started to gather colored construction paper, glue sticks, and stencil letters for students to use in the classroom. Students were only required to have on their display boards the title of their project and their research question. The rest of the board was to be filled with charts, maps, graphs, and photos that they could find on the Internet.

We spent several ninety minute blocks in the computer lab. The rest of the time (two triple block periods or 150 minutes) was spent in the classroom cutting and pasting. I loved these times in the classroom with students working on the floor, at the tables, or on our one computer. This kind of flexibility and relaxed atmosphere promoted both conversations and creativity.

One typical scene was Gilda on the floor cutting pictures and colored paper for her board—completely surrounded by paper. She loved using the scissors that made

fancy edges for her background paper. Carolina was on the floor next to her working on her “Drugs” board (her new question had become “How Are Drugs Used and How do they Affect Your Body?”). Next to Carolina was Felicia, whose artistic eye helped others get the idea of putting colored backings on printouts from the Internet.

Mariela’s board on belly dancing was the most colorful, though she wasn’t happy with the lettering. Melina, as usual, was enlisting her friend’s help but she was also helping others in turn. There were lots of conversations going on in Portuguese as they were talking excitedly about their projects. Roberto was getting more organized today and was taking real pride in his work, carefully reworking the three sections of the board. As Felicia finished her board, she helped Mariela and Melina with their boards, laying on the floor coloring in letters. Mariela was very particular about how she wanted the letters and scolded Melina several times, but it was interesting that she let Melina work on her letters, and Melina wanted Mariela to work on her Brazil display board. Through collaborative inquiry, they were reworking their relationships both as friends and learners.

Writing Welcome Speeches

We had decided to invite other bilingual classes to our presentation in the school library. We had the library reserved for one morning block from 8:30-10:45 the morning of May 29. Now that most of the presentation boards were complete, students would write a Welcome speech for each group that came to visit us in the library. This speech would serve as a brief explanation of our work this year. They were given the following paragraph frame to work from: 1) describe the project; and 2) describe the various steps of the project to people who know nothing about our project. Roberto wrote an

interesting welcome speech that included some historical references, such as “We the people of the research class....” At first he thought he was just playing around with me, but then I encouraged him by saying, “That’s great. Be imaginative.” When I asked him to type it, he said, “You really want me to type it?” At the computer he was very serious and continued to write until the end of the period. What was interesting to me is that at the beginning of the class Roberto insisted on calling out and being negative about the presentations; however, when he was encouraged to rise to the challenge, he wrote about “the beautiful presentations.” Here is his text:

I am here on behalf of my class to proudly say that we the people, who make this wonderful community, have gathered here today with the purpose of only to share with you our research project which we have been working on since the fall of 2001. Each of us has chosen a topic that we desired for a long time, a topic which we have been fascinated with because it either shows something beautiful and/or something interesting. The different topics that we have all chosen show a little bit about us as a person and not as friend or a student.

Besides the historical references in this text, Roberto has used sophisticated vocabulary such as “community” and “fascinated” and has written complex sentences with clauses. He also revealed that, to him, the projects revealed “a little about us as a person.” In other words, the projects revealed something about each person’s identity.

We chose the six best speeches to be read at our presentations. The other speeches by Carolina, Berndt, Darlana, Gilda, and Felicia all revealed more of the steps of the project. For instance, Carolina wrote:

Welcome! We are gathered here today to present our year-long research. We worked really hard to get it done. Each of us chose a topic to study which we were interested in. We went to the library; we took notes from many different and interesting books. We searched the internet and then we put the research together and typed it on the computer. After that, we had to organize the project. Then we were able to start doing the poster boards. I hope you enjoy our presentation.

By writing these Welcome speeches, students began to “own” the presentations and reveal themselves as researchers. The following day, we decided to rehearse our presentations in another ESL teacher’s Grade Seven class. When the students entered our classroom that afternoon, they were all over the place—loud and emotional. It turned out there were boyfriend problems with one of the girls and there was a threat of a fight after school. Roberto was being argumentative saying that people should pay them for presenting their projects; he interrupted our directions several times and in general was being disrespectful. By acknowledging these upheavals and letting students talk them out, they were then able to focus on the work at hand.

When students were ready, we walked down the hall to rehearse for the ESL III class. These same emotional students were now composed, and placed their display boards and written projects on designated tables. Carolina read her Welcome speech and then my cooperating teacher and I explained a little more about the purpose of the project. One of the seventh graders asked incredulously, “You really mean they got to choose any topic they wanted?” This pointed out to me both how rare this opportunity is in the middle school and how much kids desire authentic literacy choices.

We asked students to rotate around the room asking questions of the students about their displays, and then after five minutes move on to the next display. As I observed, I heard conversations in Spanish as students engaged Miguel and Juan in dialogues about their projects. The seventh graders were genuinely interested and I think our students were surprised by this! Roberto held forth on his theme of WW II and I overheard him explaining about the WW II leaders as he pointed to them on his display board. Even Melina, who always tried to seem so apathetic, became carried away by the

moment and started answering students' questions about Brazil. I noticed that students rarely referred to their written projects to find answers—they knew their topics so well they could confidently speak about them. As our students left the class, they acknowledged that now they weren't so nervous because they knew what to expect. Roberto declared, "The seventh graders were more nervous than us!"

Presentation Day

The morning of the presentations the class entered the library with a mix of trepidation and excitement. They took their places by their displays. Melina had brought in a Brazilian flag to hang near her project, and Miguel had brought in library books and a geodome he had made in tech class. Students were getting comfortable with their spaces.

To help with the flow of movement of visiting students and faculty, my cooperating teacher had designed three basic questions on strips of paper for visitors to ask of our students. They were: 1) "What is your topic and why did you choose it?" 2) "What did you learn?" 3) "What did you enjoy the most about doing this research project?" We had also designed a Presentation Rubric for ease in grading. In this way, students knew that this presentation was part of their final project grade. The rubric contained three parts: 1) your ability to engage the audience; 2) presenting knowledge about your topic; and 3) behavior and attitude.

With these structures in place the presentations proceeded in a professional manner. Our students easily engaged both adults and students in dialogue about their projects. We heard our students switch comfortably back and forth between English and

Spanish or Portuguese. My cooperating teacher and I circulated among the students taking field notes, observing, and taking pictures.

Our field notes and observations revealed that our students were confident speakers about their topics. When Miguel spoke with our Bilingual Department Head, he told him some specific facts about the Big Dig: “Once the tunnel gets built and all the traffic is rerouted underground, the space up here will be beautiful. They will have parks and apartments and many other kinds of buildings.”

Mario also was very poised in his conversations. He knew his facts and talked enthusiastically about his topic. When he was asked, “What is a SWAT team?” he answered confidently, “A SWAT team deals with special emergency situations. They are called in when nobody can do the job. They can protect or secure an area, so that other people can do their work.”

Mario was also articulate about the steps of the research process. When our Director of Bilingual Education asked him how he accomplished so much reading, he answered, “First, I kept reading and reading and I got confused and I knew I had to go back and start reading again.”

Our Department Head also devised a scavenger hunt of facts for his ESL IV students. His seventh graders were fired up to find the specific answers from our students. By listening to his debriefing later in the day, it was evident that our students knew their topics well. In addition, our students showed that they had made the research process their own. For example one of his interview questions was, “How was this project different from other projects you have done in the middle school?” Among our students’ responses were the following: “This project was more professional and more

hard and it was a year long project;” “[It involved] writing, reading, and talking,” and “This one helped [me develop skills in] reading, writing, and talking.”

Student Reflections

Student reflections about their presentations also revealed students’ pride in another big accomplishment—presenting their projects to a larger audience. I asked them to compare how they felt before the presentation to how they felt after the presentation.

The following is a sample of some of their answers before the presentations:

Roberto: I felt very nervous at first, but once I got settled, I noticed that the shy people in the room wasn’t me [*sic.*] but the people who were going to watch. Then I felt normal because I felt confident about myself.

Miguel: I felt excited and also nervous because it was very hard to be there and I was always asking myself what about if there is a question that I can’t answer and I was scared to see my friend and also special people that could laugh about my topic.

Mario: I felt comfortable because I knew what I was going to say and I knew a lot of things about my project.

Juan: Before the presentation, I felt very nervous and very frustrated just a little.

Carolina: I was happy that I was able to get it done because it was so much hard work. I was nervous too.

After the presentations, these same students wrote enthusiastically about their accomplishments:

Roberto: I had just accomplished something, before the presentation I was thinking that I would be in big trouble in there but when I was done, I thought it was really easy.

Miguel: I felt proud and happy that I made it, it was exciting to present a year long research that was so interesting for me and so fascinating. Well, I felt so good with my presentation because I got to share my knowledge and most of my visitors were amazed with the answers to some of the questions.

Mario: I felt almost the same way that I felt before. The only difference is that I knew that I didn't have to do that before. And I felt proud of myself for know a lot of things about my project and myself.

Juan: I felt very proud of myself because never in my whole lifetime I never did this so I was very happy and excited.

Carolina: Happy. Because I could see how hard it was to get everything done and I was able to get everything together.

Final Grading of The Research Projects

Students had been given the completed rubric for their projects in the beginning of May. In constructing this rubric, I used my projected rubric as a guideline but condensed some items and then assigned a point system to each section:

Table 4.5 Rubric for the Final Draft of Research Project, May 6, 2002

| | Strong (6) | Average (4) | Weak (2) |
|---|------------|-------------|----------|
| Researching: at least 5 sources | | | |
| Use of Internet | | | |
| Other data sources: Interview, charts, photos | | | |
| Note-taking | | | |
| Drafting Process: 10-15 pages | | | |
| Organization: Section headings | | | |
| Sentence Complexity | | | |
| Academic Vocabulary | | | |
| Mechanics: Verb tenses, spelling, punctuation | | | |
| Citations | | | |
| Bibliography | | | |
| Table of Contents | | | |
| Title Page | | | |
| Visual Presentation | | | |
| Oral Presentation | | | |
| | | | |
| Total Points | | | |
| Teacher Comments | | | |

I decided that both the cooperating teacher and I would grade the projects independently in order to ensure validity and then we would come together to discuss the final grade. It was always fascinating to have these discussions because my cooperating teacher was much more hard-lined than I was. I tended to see the subtle nuances, considering the whole child and the year's progress. After discussing each child we came to compromise agreements and we began to see how the rubric really did reflect the



yearlong research process. (See Appendix E for a detailed explanation of the criteria for the rubric used in grading the projects.)

The lowest grades went to Melina with a C+ and to Berndt with a C-, which reflected their process over the year. They had put the least investment into their projects and it wasn't until near the end of the year that they began to push themselves harder.

Juan received a 90=A-; I advocated for his great progress this year despite a recently diagnosed learning disability.

Gilda received a 98=A+; this grade definitely reflected her outstanding work all year.

Mariela received a 94=A, which reflected her consistent progress in writing all year and her excellent perseverance with all the steps of the process;

Roberto received an 86=B+, which reflected his excellent work near the end of the project but also reflected his weakness in note taking and reference skills;

Carolina received a 100=A+; this reflected her hard work all year even though she joined the class in November;

Miguel received a 93=A for his excellent research work all year. We disagreed about his mechanics grade because on his final project he had missed many edits, but I argued that he had come far in his writing skills, so we compromised on a one point difference.

Mario received an 80=B- because of his hard work near the end of the project. However, he was inconsistent in his effort during the yearlong process, and his note taking and referencing skills were weak.

My cooperating teacher and I both wrote final comments on each project. To me these comments are just as important as the grade. I believe this is the time to praise students for their hard work and to explain any weak grades. The following are some typical comments:

Dear Miguel,

I am so proud of your work on this yearlong project. I know the writing and organization of this project were at times frustrating and difficult for you, but you never gave up! You stayed after school, you sought individual help, and you helped us with your computer skills.

You are an excellent researcher! I hope some day you will pursue engineering and build wonderful structures.

Ms. Barse

My cooperating teacher added these comments:

Miguel,

I have learned many interesting engineering facts reading your paper. You have collected much data. At times the paper feels a little disjointed (doesn't run together smoothly).

Despite our different styles, my cooperating teacher and I both believed in our students' strengths and we were truly proud of their efforts this year. It was hard to believe the year was almost over. (See Appendix E for examples of graded rubrics.)

A Field Trip to Lesley University

One of our last meetings together was a field trip to my college, Lesley University in Cambridge. The purpose of this trip was two-fold: to celebrate our year of work

together by having a pizza lunch; and to have an opportunity to visit a university so our students could see what a college really looked like. (Research on reducing dropout rates among Latino students suggests that visiting colleges is a vital experience in opening up future possibilities for students; Lockwood & Secada, 2000).

They also had a chance to meet my advisor, Dr. Solange Lira, who is Brazilian and who helped me plan the trip; she had invited her daughter to speak about her own experience going to college as a bilingual student. They met another one of my professors from Portugal who provided the funding for the trip. I felt that these Portuguese women role models were important for my Brazilian girls to meet. The Associate Director of Admissions and an Admissions Counselor joined us and answered students' questions about the admissions process.

Students were animated and asked many pointed questions like what kind of courses did you need to take to go to college, what are dormitories like, and what kinds of programs did Lesley offer. I felt their attentive and polite behavior reflected their respect for the educational process and their gratitude at being given this unique opportunity.

Of the eleven students' Thank You letters to Dr. Lira, ten mentioned their desire to go to college. Only Melina stated that she couldn't picture herself in college. I interpreted their letters as meaning that they now identified themselves as students and learners and they believed they might attend college one day and become a professional. Here is what some of the students wrote in their letters:

Miguel: "I learned that colleges do provide financial aid for an affordable career and

that studying in a small place makes a difference because you get to know the people you are studying with.... I hope someday to attend college in order to become an engineer.”

Felicia: “I liked meeting you the best because you are from the same country as me.... I hope someday to attend college in order to become a businesswoman.”

Mario: “I really enjoyed talking to you all, that really helped me, now I know more about college.... I liked learning how they choose the people who go to college. I hope someday to attend college to become a businessman.”

Gilda: “I really enjoyed the presentation which the administrators did about Lesley College. Now we know more how does college look like, and what you need to do to get into a college. I hope someday to attend college in order to become a doctor.”

Roberto wrote with his usual flair:

I really enjoyed the lunch you provided us with; those slices of pizza were just so magnificent, they tasted like heaven’s most delicious food....I liked the nice conversation we all had in that room, it was really interesting to get to know how a college really works....I hope someday to be a great businessman with lots of money, but to do so I might attend your university.

Summary of Findings

Through this last stage of the research process, I suggest that students developed their identities as researchers by presenting their projects to a larger audience. Among the findings inherent to this stage of the research process were the following:

- Students rediscovered their essential research questions through a collaborative inquiry process.

- In addition to becoming a community of writers, they had become an inquiry community, where there were deep connections among classroom activity, learning, and language.
- Through rhetorical discourse, students were persuading others of their identities as researchers.
- By presenting their projects in several languages, students celebrated their identities as bilingual learners. I suggest that they were also demonstrating a transference of a secondary discourse across two languages.
- Students felt a renewed pride in their accomplishments.
- After a university visit, ten of the eleven students expressed a desire to attend college.

By choosing topics of their own choice, these ESL students were reading and writing for real meaning and purpose. Their projects were both unique and challenging which I contend led to the rewriting of their identities as learners, readers, writers, and researchers. The next chapter synthesizes the major findings and implications of this research.

Chapter 5: CONCLUSION

Findings

This chapter synthesizes the major findings of this research that I have deemed after months of data analysis, represent the meanings of the findings. I offer part of this synthesis through the final reflections of the ESL students involved in this project and a synthesis of the major findings from each stage of the research/writing process. From these findings, I discuss implications for second language teachers, as well as discuss areas of further research that this study might inspire. The questions guiding this study asked: What does the writing process look like in the context of this research class? What happens to students vis-à-vis research, literacy, and collaboration when they are allowed to choose research topics from any area of their interest and allowed to pursue these topics over an academic year? What does this class look like vis-à-vis the students' research, literacy, and collaboration? How does adolescent ESL writing develop through the research/writing process over the period of one academic year? In addition, my overarching interest was students' perceptions of themselves as readers, writers, and researchers and how adolescent identities are affected through the sort of research/writing process that we created together in my classroom. However, this focus has not precluded my attempt to link this learning process to positive, concrete literacy outcomes, on which I also aim to shed light.

Final reflections of students

At the end of the written project, I gave students a questionnaire (see Appendix B) to find out what they thought they had learned over the course of the year. The following is a summary of their answers to the questionnaire:

- Of the eleven students, eight students responded that their question had changed over the year because as they read more, they learned more, and sometimes their focus changed. For instance, Roberto wrote, “My questions have changed over the year a lot; in the beginning of the year, I was focusing more in a military topic but as the time passed, so did my question [*sic.*]. I wanted to know more about the military career of some major countries of the world but now my question has changed from that to the coincidences of WW I and WW II. I feel like I could have done a better research project if I had focused about it since the beginning of the year but I am glad with what I accomplished.”
- All eleven students said that they felt they had developed as researchers. Whereas in the beginning of the year, they had only a vague idea of the steps in the research process, they now could name all the steps. They all mentioned that they had learned how to find more information by using the library and the Internet, and that they now knew how to take notes and organize their notes into sections. They also all wrote that their English skills had become better by going through this process.
- Of the eleven students, ten stated that they had changed their opinions about themselves. Their answers were divided into three different categories: pride and self-confidence, improvement in skills, and capacity to get along with others. Both Gilda and Felicia also stated that their opinions about pregnant teenage girls had changed. Gilda wrote, “By doing this project I changed my opinion about myself as a student, now I can do a research project by myself and I’m sure that it is going to be good. And I also changed the way I see people. My mind is now

open about girls that get pregnant at young age.... Because now I don't look at a pregnant girl and judge her because of what she did...

- Nine students responded that finding information was the best part of doing this project. Of the two remaining students, Miguel answered that doing the whole project was the best part, and Carolina stated that her favorite part was putting things in her own words because it improved her vocabulary.
- All eleven students responded that they had learned new skills as readers and writers. All students stated that their English had improved in three ways: learning new vocabulary, writing notes in their own words, and writing better. Gilda summed up these answers: "As a reader and writer I improved a lot better now[.] I don't feel vulnerable when writing for someone that writes English perfectly as I was before. And my vocabulary improved a lot either I know many words that I did not know before, because every time I did not understand something I asked the teachers and they explained it to me. My reading also improved a lot even my pronunciation is better now."

I interpret Gilda's words as reaffirming the need for teacher support during the research process. I also suggest that her remarks about not feeling "vulnerable when writing for someone that writes English perfectly" as meaning that she is now more confident to write English in a more fluid, coherent manner, with a larger academic vocabulary.

- Of the eleven students, only Mariela said that she wouldn't change anything the next time she did a research project. Four students said that they might choose

another topic, and five students said that they would try to find more information, take better notes, and stay more organized and focused from the beginning.

- When asked about what steps they would follow in doing a research project the next time, all eleven students were able to describe the steps that they had followed. Roberto summed up his steps: “If I were to do another research project, the first thing I would do is get a binder and try to divide it into many sections such as note taking, first and final draft, reflection, and bibliography. Secondly I would go to the library to try to find as much books as I can find. Thirdly, I would start reading the books so I could gather as much information as my mind allows. Fourthly I would start to take notes about what I understood about every book I read. Then finally I would read the draft, I would correct it, and I would put it together so it can look like a book.”
- When I asked what for them was the most important part of the research project, the answers fell into three categories: gaining pride in accomplishment and learning about oneself, finding information, and helping each other. The largest number, six, answered that the project had an effect on their identity. For example, Roberto wrote: “The most important part of my research for me as a person and as a student was everything. I feel like every part of the research was very important for me as student and as a person because I tested my limits in a way that I never did if my memory isn’t failing.” (We see again Roberto’s enjoyment of language and humor as he plays with the phrase, “if my memory isn’t failing.”) Mario wrote in a similar vein: “The most important part of this project for me has been as a person was the part that you learn about yourself,

what you really are. And what you want to do about your life.” Gilda wrote:

“The most important part of this project for me as a person is the results that I

think is very good and I’m proud of myself.” Mariela reflected upon her new

found work ethic as she wrote: “The most important part of this research project

for me was that we have to work hard to find what we want and help each another

[*sic.*].” I suggest that these remarks point to these students’ new self-confidence

and pride in their accomplishments and has contributed to their identity as

researchers, learners, and writers.

- When asked what advice they would give to ESL teachers about doing this project, they all agreed that by doing this project they had improved their English while doing something that was fun and interesting. They would definitely recommend it to other teachers.
- Three students added comments. Gilda wrote: “I enjoyed doing this project because I had excellent results and I’m proud of myself.” Melina added: “In conclusion, I thought that this was a great way to learn new vocabulary words.” And Mario said: “On this research project I learned that life is about learning about yourself and the people that is around you, how to be a friend and accept the other for what they are.” I suggest that these additional comments support what these and other students had reiterated on the questionnaire: that the new pride they felt about their accomplishments in advancing their English knowledge of vocabulary and writing contributed to their learning more about themselves. According to Spencer *et al* (1998), this kind of building of academic competence contributes to a positive sense of self.

Synthesis of findings

The three generative themes of leaning English, becoming stronger writers and researchers, and helping each other, crossed over all stages of the research/writing process. The following is a summary of the major findings:

- Identity formation:

The data from the interviews and written reflections suggest that students' identities developed through each stage of the research process as they became more confident of their abilities as readers and writers. I suggest that this crucial stage in the psychological development of middle school adolescents (Spencer, 1998) is given a strong boost through writing and researching. In this context, academic competence can also be seen as a pivotal resource for positive identity formation among second language adolescents. I suggest that speaking about oneself to others through rhetorical discourse gave students additional academic competence in a second language, which promoted their identities as learners of English. As they became more confident of themselves as learners, they believed that they had more possibilities open to them in the future, including the possibility of going to college.

- Importance of cultural connections in choosing topics:

The data suggest that most topics were chosen because of a cultural connection. Cummins states that collaboration in the construction of knowledge will operate effectively only in contexts where students' identities are being affirmed (1996, p. 26). Second, students helped each other with choosing topics and with clarifying readings of research. Wells (1999) maintains that the zone of

proximal development is created in the interaction between the student and the co-participants in a collaborative activity. I now contend that for these second language learners, this process of integrating their cultural identity in an historical context by using language as a mediational and rhetorical tool was central to their process of achieving coherence in their identity.

- Language as a mediational tool:

Vygotsky's developmental theory is critical to understanding the importance of language in this setting as a mediational tool that promoted both individual and social development in these second language learners.

Instructional conversations by the teachers were important in assisting learners through the ZPD to the second stage of development where they could perform an activity by themselves among other kinds of learning. This kind of assistance provided students with academic vocabulary knowledge as well as the text structure of a secondary discourse.

- The value of authentic literacy events:

In addition, second language learners were involved in authentic literacy events as they were researching topics of their own choice. Because they were immersed in reading and writing processes, text also served to mediate the development of English as their second language. Moreover, I contend that since students in the research process were constantly taking notes and "paraphrasing" what they had read, they were creating their own personal paraphrases which led to a kind of transformation in their learning to read and write in English, as was referred to in Chapter, Five, Two and Four.

- Importance of written reflection:

As students reflected upon their learning, they were more aware of what they needed to know and thus created with the support of their teachers and peers optimal zones of proximal development for learning English through the research process. For example, during the note taking process, all the students believed that they could write in phrases, although summarizing and putting things in “our” own words was the most difficult part of note taking, but just by “doing it” they had become better at it.

Students also said that their writing was better because they were reading more. Felicia noted in an interview: “My reading has improved; in class I highlight what’s most challenging.” Mariela also said that by doing challenging work, she was feeling more confidence in her abilities. She added that she learned that “I can do it, I can research stuff just if I want to cause I think I couldn’t do it.”

- Importance of challenging work:

I interpret students’ use of the word “challenging” as a key element in their developing confidence as researchers and writers. The more they believed in themselves, the better their English skills became. Both Cummins (1996) and Freeman & Freeman (2002) suggest that providing challenging activities increases both students’ confidence in their second language abilities and also accelerates their learning of academic English. My data seems to support the assertions of both Cummins and Freeman and Freeman.

Doing challenging work seemed to be also linked to students' declarations that research was hard but that it was worth the effort. Gilda wrote the following in her February reflection: "With research my English improved. I learned that research is not only copying stuffs from the book or summarizing it, but read [*sic.*], understand, and write what you learned. Research is not easy, you got to do it step by step and do it carefully. Things have to be in order and nothing can be destroyed. At the end I'll put everything in order and do a very good job."

Roberto added that research takes a long time, but if one is interested in the topic and one stays organized, then it is easier. He also said that during and after the project, he liked to write because he was writing about something he cared about: "One year ago I didn't like to write at all but now I know that I'm writing something that I like. It's good."

- Importance of teacher feedback and individual conferencing:

Through each stage of the research/writing process students mentioned that teacher feedback and individual conferencing helped them to succeed and become more accomplished writers in English. For example, Mario affirmed in an interview that it was important to tell him "the weakest point, what I should improve; that helps...." He also said that his comprehension was improving because of our working together sentence by sentence: "I didn't know everything I wrote and that I should put things in my own words, things I can understand—definitely I'm learning new vocabularies."

Likewise, Roberto affirmed that teacher feedback was important to him. He said, "It tells me what I'm doing wrong and if I should concentrate on

something else or if you don't understand something that I wrote that really helped me.... I think when you write something it's really helpful if someone reads it and tells you what's wrong with the paper you wrote. It helps a lot.”

Mariela declared that individual conferencing also helped her because “We don't learn if a teacher doesn't explain it; when they explain we can do more, it's kind of easy.”

- Importance of biliteracy:

Another important factor in these ESL students' success was the fact that all students were literate in their native languages of Spanish, Portuguese, and German. The only student who was not fully literate in her native language was Nadia, from Morocco. I found throughout the process that Nadia struggled, especially with written language and forming coherent sentences. However, her oral language and vocabulary were quite strong. For these bilingual adolescents learning a second language depended on the internal structure of their native language in order to transfer their competencies to the learning of English. The more literate a student is in their native language, the more they can accelerate the learning of their second language. Thus, my own research supports what other bilingual researchers have found about the ability of literacy to transfer across languages.

These ESL IV students also mediated their world by conversing in two languages in order to understand text and with this new understanding they created new ways of understanding the world through the research process. In

other words, when they wanted to make sure of the text they were reading they would always check with a peer to translate into their native language.

- Importance of collaborative inquiry:

Students “helping each other” was another major theme throughout the research process. Students’ engagement in collaborative inquiry—helping each other was linked to both their improvement in English and a greater ability to work together to solve a problem. Those were *their* personal links. This process was central to the development of this class into a community of inquiry as described fully in Chapter Two. Moreover, students’ engagement in the authentic literacy practice of researching was the most important factor noted by all students as a way to learn more English.

- Growth in writing:

Finally, through the research/writing process, certain writing outcomes were seen across all students’ work samples. Writing was found to develop in three distinct areas: increase usage of academic vocabulary, an increase in the length of writing as demonstrated by the use of compound complex sentences and the use of transition words to connect paragraphs, and an increase in the ability to write more than one paragraph in a coherent manner. Moreover, because of this kind of writing growth, I suggest that students were able to write in a secondary discourse in a confident and coherent manner.

In summary, the findings seem to suggest that by choosing topics of their own choice, these ESL students were reading and writing for what to them felt

like real meaning and purpose. Their projects were both unique and challenging which led to their bolstering and, in a sense, rewriting their identities as learners, readers, writers, and researchers. As Wells (2000) clearly states, “Learning is not simply the acquisition of isolated skills or items of information, but involves the whole person and contributes to the formations of individual identity.”

Thoughts from the Cooperating Practitioner

A key factor in the success of this research project was the collegiality of my cooperating practitioner, Ms. Hamilton. She not only kept field notes along with me, but gave me feedback on lessons and about students. We worked as a team throughout the project, although I was the teacher-researcher implementing and designing the research project with her students. At the end of the school year I asked her to fill out a questionnaire (see Appendix C) as a way of reflecting on the process of both teacher-research and what she learned about her ESL students.

When asked what changes occurred in her thinking about middle school ESL students, she replied, “I realize that they are capable of much more than I had imagined.... What I didn’t realize is that they could handle a large amount of work and responsibility. This is true if all the work is done in school, meaning not too much homework. I kept thinking to myself, ‘How are they going to accomplish this?’ And for the most part, the majority of the students could do the work. Of course, it really helped that they had two teachers at all times and only thirteen students [This will be discussed further in my section on implications]. By May there were only eleven students left.... I also learned that ESL middle school students are very connected to what is going on in

the outside world. Some of the topics reflected: Aids, drugs, teen pregnancy, wars, and animal rights. The students also had much to add to the project. We did not have to spend much time teaching them about the Internet or using MS Word because for the most part they knew more than we did. Through this I learned that ESL middle school students love to help each other and they love to be needed, so we encouraged this as much as possible.”

From these statements it is clear that Ms. Hamilton learned the value of challenging ESL students with high-level authentic literacy projects. She also acknowledged the importance of our ESL students helping each other. Her statement that we were lucky to have two teachers in the room at all times and only thirteen students points to the importance of small class size in ensuring individual attention to all students and also to the importance of collaboration between two teachers on a large-scale research project such as this one.

In a related question, I asked Ms. Hamilton if her ideas about pedagogy or methods of teaching ESL changed in any way. She replied in this manner: “ESL students at this level need much less direct instruction on language and more authentic materials and activities to advance their language learning. There needs to be differentiated instruction, various ways of assessing, and individual choices for the students in order to be motivated. Research is the perfect way to accomplish these goals.” Here, too, Ms. Hamilton acknowledges that the research process enabled students to engage in a highly motivating authentic literacy project. The research that led to this dissertation does not claim that this is the only way to engage middle school students in authentic literacy

projects, but it found that doing research *was* highly effective in motivating our majority Latino students.

Ms. Hamilton continued to elaborate upon the value of doing research. She wrote, “As a teacher I am constantly thinking about how I like to learn and what projects I would be interested in doing. These thoughts constantly inform my teaching. That is why the research project works so well; it allows choice. What learner would not like to research any topic of choice? I wish I were a student in this class.... I have learned that when the students are really learning and engaged, teaching is fun and easy. When the students were doing research in the library or drafting on the computer, I thought that this was a classroom at its best. Due to this realization, I would not hesitate doing a research project again.”

In another question, I asked how had this research informed Ms. Hamilton’s own teaching and thinking. She wrote that the idea of research could be infused in the curriculum in many different ways. For example, she wrote, “This could go beyond the traditional idea of picking big topics.... [T]hey could research a grammar problem that they are constantly having trouble with. If a student is having problems with articles, he or she could look in [three to four] books to find out the various ways to explain the rules of articles. Then the student could go to authentic sources to find examples of article usage.... So, research can really be a way to help students learn in every aspect of the class.”

For her part, this teacher is seeing how to apply research in every aspect of her classroom instruction. She sees the value of allowing student choice and the value of researching everyday problems which could further engage middle school students in

authentic literacy issues. It is these kinds of insights, that I believe are the result of collaboration and involvement in a teacher-research project, which, when transferred to the lives of other teachers, could have an effect on future pedagogy.

I was very interested in finding out from Ms. Hamilton if she saw any connections between our work in the research class and her students' work in other subject areas. She wrote about students' improving vocabulary, their writing of longer, more complex sentences, their applying research skills to the answering of social studies MCAS questions. Here is some of what she wrote:

In language arts, I saw the connections almost immediately. In vocabulary quizzes, I saw vocabulary from their research projects start to enter into their sentences.... Miguel had a sentence about the Big Dig and Mariela had a sentence that was connected to Belly Dancing. I also saw a big improvement in the length and depth of their sentences. While we were reading the book *Holes*, I saw their reading responses also lengthen and [them] using more vocabulary directly from the book.

In social studies, I noticed that their questions got deeper and more specific (example: Why didn't Slater stay in England to build his business? [Gilda]). In the beginning of the year, they asked very few questions and the ones that they did ask were very basic (example: When was he president?)

During MCAS preparation (out of the eleven students, five students took the MCAS), the students who were not taking the test studied beside them....When we didn't know the answer to a question, the students would research the answer with the numerous reference books in the classroom. Research for them was now a piece of cake and it was obvious to me that they learned you can always find the answer to a question if you just search.

In this section, Ms. Hamilton has observed the various classroom connections students seemed to make as a result of being involved in the research project. Her reflections and observations confirm the results of the student data. In addition, I suggest that these ESL students were making metatextual connections and thus were able to take the next steps in various literacy tasks. As researchers, they had become more confident

in their abilities as learners, and they had transformed their learning to apply to other areas of their schoolwork. Moreover, these classroom connections seem to suggest that these students now identified themselves as capable English students and had as such rewritten their identities as readers and writers.

Another question that fascinated me was how Ms. Hamilton saw the role of teacher-research in informing practice. Her insights tell us more about the value of doing teacher-research in ESL classrooms. She wrote:

An excellent teacher is always researching. You must do research to inform your future practice. I would add that this experience was unique due to the class size and the amount of time I actually got to talk about the research with Carol. Because of Carol's flexible schedule we had the luxury of discussing the research class almost on a daily basis....One reason teachers don't do research in their class is TIME.... But you can do it...Pick one class a year and focus on one aspect of your teaching. Collect data and look at it each week for an hour...write an article at the end of the year for a professional journal and present it to interested colleagues. Basically, teaching cannot exist without ongoing teacher-research.

Implications for Second Language Teachers

There are several important implications for second language teachers as a result of this data. The findings suggest that for second language adolescents authentic literacy events both motivate and accelerate SLA. These events could be theme cycles, research projects, or any manner of research that demands students to use language in authentic contexts. It also seems that cooperative learning and collaborative inquiry work successfully with Latino students and contribute to their sense of a learning community.

The value of teacher feedback and explicit instruction is also one of the findings of the data. It is implicit that teachers provide students with scaffolding, rubrics, deadlines, and routines to ensure the success of a research/writing project. It is even

more critical that teachers provide students with individual conferencing. Written feedback is not enough. Through this individual conferencing, students optimize their zones of proximal development, but more important Latino students feel that this is one way teachers show that they care for them. I suggest that establishing personal relationships with ESL students can't be underestimated as a force for motivating students to learn and achieve at high levels. Along with building relationships, it is equally important to have high expectations for all students and provide challenging work. My students emphasized the words *challenging*, *hard*, and *professional* when describing their research projects. They believed that this challenging work helped them to learn "more" English, including advancing their acquisition of new English vocabulary, an aspect of language acquisition that has a powerful impact on overall language and literacy growth.

Another important finding for ESL teachers to consider is the role of written reflections in allowing students to think about what they have learned after they have gone through a certain stage of a research project. Asking them to reflect upon what they have learned allows students not only to metacognitively reflect on what they have learned but on what they have to learn next. For ESL adolescents, this kind of reflection puts them in charge of their learning and further motivates them to engage in the next literacy task they face.

Finally, from this class I learned the importance of adolescents being biliterate, and the role that native language literacy plays in the success of learning a second language. These internal linguistic structures are transferable to another language and students are able to progress more quickly and efficiently in their learning of English.

Adolescent students at all levels of English acquisition need to feel comfortable speaking in their native tongue, especially to clarify concepts that they don't quite understand in English. This kind of mutual respect for students' native languages also builds respect and trust in a classroom. It further builds a sense of "family" and community that I suggest are central to the learning success of Latino students. Even though this study described a majority Latino ESL class, I argue, from past teaching experiences, that this sense of community is applicable to classes of mixed languages and cultures. Since culture, language, and identity formation are inextricably linked to the overall academic learning of adolescent second language learners, the role of culture can not be overemphasized, both in the teaching materials a teacher brings to the class and in the respect she shows for the strengths that students bring to class.

Recommendations for Further Research

In conclusion, this dissertation has gleaned understandings that contribute to answers to the research questions I originally posed and has resulted in a series of new questions that I believe now merit scholarly attention.

1. How do bilingual adolescents who have little or no native language literacy acquire English as a second language, in particular, how do they develop a secondary discourse?
2. How do classes of mixed language ESL students best engage in collaborative inquiry for purposes of students' gaining mastery of language and literacy?
3. What is the analytical growth of ESL writing during the course of one year?
4. How is growth in language best measured?

5. What are the implications of the connections between A) identity formation, B) Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, and C) second language acquisition for second language adolescents and second language research, writ large?
6. How do we, meaning, all teachers, help to close the achievement gap between Latino students and the white dominant majority students? What are some of the most effective practices used in schools and classrooms today and how do we as teachers most effectively communicate with each other about these practices?
7. And, finally, how can we change teacher preparation programs to include courses in language acquisition, sociolinguistics, and multicultural education, for all secondary teachers?

This dissertation has now come full circle. My journey into finding out more about my Greek identity formation led me to discover insights into how Latino second language adolescents develop their unique identities. My research has humbled me into knowing that there are many more questions and answers to be discovered about second language writing. Together with the language and literacy theorists and researchers who have gone before me and inspired my work, we offer pieces of the language puzzle, but there are countless more pieces to the puzzle waiting to be explored.

APPENDIX A**Consent Forms****Cultural Linguistic Questionnaire****ESL Benchmarks**

Parent/Child Consent Form for Research Study

Dear Parent/Guardian:

This letter is to inform you of a research study in your daughter's/ son's Grade 8 ESL IV class at the Fuller Middle School in Framingham, MA. The purpose of this study is to examine how ESL students acquire and improve their academic English while they are doing research projects. Students will be keeping researcher notebooks, where they will write about their topics, write reflections, collect data, and present a final report.

This letter asks your permission to collect writing samples from your students. I will also be conducting tape recorded interviews of your students, asking them about their research process and their perceptions of being a researcher. By participating in this study, you will be enhancing our knowledge about how middle school ESL students write and think.

The data from the writing samples and the interviews will be shared with colleagues both at Fuller Middle School and other professional staff in the Framingham Schools. This data will also be written up as a Dissertation to fulfill the requirements of my Doctoral Degree at Lesley University in Cambridge, MA.

Your child's name will be kept confidential at all times, and he/she will be interviewed under an assumed name. Names from writing samples will also be given another name.

You have the right to contact me with any of your concerns. You may contact me at Fuller Middle School (508)-620-4958 or you may also e-mail me at carolbears@aol.com.

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research. By signing below you agree to have your child participate in this research. I agree to keep your child's name confidential. If you wish, I also agree to share my final report with you and your student.

Sincerely yours,

Carol Bearse, Literacy Specialist/Bilingual Curriculum Resource Specialist

Signature of Parent.....Date.....

Signature of Child.....Date.....

Signature of Researcher/Teacher.....Date.....

Formulario de Consentimiento niño / padre para un estudio de investigación

Estimado padre/guardián:

Esta carta es para informarle de un estudio de investigación en la cual estará participando su hija / hijo del grado 8 en las clases de ESL IV en la Escuela Intermedia Fuller en Framingham, MA. El propósito de este estudio es examinar cómo los estudiantes de ESL adquieren y mejoran su inglés académico mientras hacen proyectos de investigación. Los estudiantes estarán usando cuadernos de investigadores, donde ellos escribirán acerca de sus temas, sus reflexiones, reúnen datos y presentan un informe final.

Esta carta le pide permiso para coleccionar las muestras que escriben los estudiantes. Yo también estaré haciendo una grabación para grabar las entrevistas de los estudiantes, para preguntarles acerca de su proceso de investigación y sus percepciones como investigadores. Por tomar parte en este estudio, usted estará aumentando nuestro conocimiento acerca de cómo los estudiantes de la escuela intermedia de ESL escriben y piensan.

Los datos de las muestras de las escrituras y las entrevistas serán compartidos con los colegas tanto de la Escuela Intermedia Fuller como otros profesionales de las Escuelas de Framingham. Estos datos serán también documentados como un adiestramiento, que es requisito indispensable para mi Grado Doctoral en la Universidad de Lesley en Cambridge, MA.

El nombre de su niño será mantenido confidencial en todo momento, y él / ella serán entrevistados bajo un nombre asumido. Los nombres de las muestras de la escritura serán dados también con otros nombres.

Usted tiene el derecho de avisarme con cualquiera cosa que le preocupe. Usted me puede avisar a la Escuela Intermedia Fuller al (508)-620-4958 ó me puede también enviar un correo electrónico a carolbears@aol.com.

Gracias por estar de acuerdo en tomar parte en esta investigación. Su firma más debajo indicará que usted está de acuerdo en tener a su niño como parte de esta investigación. Yo me comprometo a mantener el nombre de su niño en forma confidencial. Si usted desea, yo también estoy de acuerdo en compartir mi informe final con usted y con su hijo / hija.

Atentamente a sus órdenes,

Carol Bearse, Especialista en alfabetización / Especialista Bilingüe de Recursos Curriculares

Firma del padre/madre/guardián.....Fecha.....

Firma del niño/niña..... Fecha.....

Firma del Investigador/Maestro Fecha.....

Formulário de Consentimento dos Pais e Filhos para Participação na Pesquisa

Caros Pais/Guardiões:

Esta carta é para informar a vocês sobre uma pesquisa que faremos na sala de seu filho/a, que é a sala da 8ª. Série ESL IV da Escola Média Fuller em Framingham, MA. O propósito dessa pesquisa é investigar como os alunos de ESL adquirem e melhoram a Língua Inglesa acadêmica ao fazerem projetos de pesquisa. Os alunos terão uma caderneta de pesquisa onde escreverão sobre seus tópicos, reflexões, informações coletadas e onde apresentarão um relatório final.

Esta carta pede sua permissão para coletarmos material escrito de seu estudante. Estarei também conduzindo uma entrevista gravada em fita cassete de seu estudante, perguntando sobre o processo de pesquisa dele e a percepção de ser um pesquisador. Participando deste estudo, vocês estarão aumentando nosso conhecimento sobre como os alunos de ESL da escola média escrevem e pensam.

Os dados vindos do material escrito e das entrevistas serão compartilhados com nossos colegas da Escola Média Fuller e outros profissionais das Escolas de Framingham. Estes dados também farão parte de minha Dissertação requerida para meu Doutorado na Lesley University, em Cambridge, MA.

O nome de seu filho/a será mantido em segredo e ele/a será entrevistado usando um nome suposto. Os nomes dos materiais escritos também serão trocados.

Vocês têm o direito de partilhar comigo suas preocupações, podendo me telefonar na Escola Média Fuller (508)620-4958 ou passando um e-mail para carolbearse@aol.com.

Muito obrigada por estarem participando desse estudo. Assinando abaixo, vocês concordam que seu filho/a participe dessa pesquisa. Eu concordo em manter o nome de seu filho/a em segredo. Se você desejar, concordo também em compartilhar meu relatório final com você e o estudante.

Atenciosamente,

Carol Bearse, Especialista em Literatura/Especialista do Currículo Bilíngüe

Assinatura dos Pais..... Data.....

Assinatura do Aluno..... Data.....

Assinatura do Pesquisador/Professor..... Data.....

Cultural/Linguistic Questionnaire¹

Please answer the following questions as completely as you can.

1. Today's Date:.....
2. Complete name.....
3. Your birth date.....
4. Your parents' or guardian's names:
 - Mother:..... Age:
 - Father..... Age:
 - Grandparents (if they live with you)..... Age:
 - Other:..... Age:
5. How long has your family been in the United States?.....
6. What is the birthplace of your parents?.....
7. In what language did your parents receive most of her education?.....
8. How many years of schooling did each of your parents complete?.....
9. What kinds of jobs do your parents have?
10. What kinds of jobs did your parents have in their home country?.....
....
11. Where were you born?.....
12. What is the language you speak most at home?.....
13. List your brothers or sisters and their ages:
14. Does your family receive a newspaper? If so, in what language?.....
15. Do you or your family receive any magazines? Please name them.....
15. In which language are television and radio received in your home?.....

¹ Adapted from Cloud, N. (1991). Educational Assessment. IN E.V. Hamayan and J.S. Damico (Eds.) (pp.219-246). Limiting Bias in the Assessment of Bilingual Students. Austin: PRO-ED.

16. What other kinds of books do you have in your home?.....
17. How long have you been in school in Framingham?.....
18. How many years of ESL have you had in Framingham?.....
19. How old were you when you arrived in this country?.....
20. Did you ever go back to your native country and then return to Framingham or the U.S.?.....For how long?.....
21. How many years did you have classes in Spanish or Portuguese?.....
22. Do you consider yourself able to read and write well in your native language?.....why or why not?
23. Are you taking native language instruction now? In what subjects?.....
24. What standard classes are you taking?.....
25. What ESL classes are you taking?
26. Did you go to public or private school in your native country?.....
27. Did you take any English classes in your native country?.....
28. What do you think are the major differences between school in your native country and school in the United States as you have experienced it? Please try to be specific as possible in this answer.

29. Do you attend after school, community, or church programs? Are these programs in English or your native language?

30. What are your goals for your future?.....

ESL Benchmarks Page

The benchmarks listed for each ESL level reflect the curriculum goals for that level. The bulleted items also signify what a student needs to have accomplished before being considered for advancement to the next level. This page is to be used closely with the ESL/Bilingual Placement Form. Teachers are responsible for including and sending all attachments, along with the placement form, on to the students' next teacher. The sending and receiving teachers are also responsible for meeting to discuss any student being moved.

ESL Level 1

- Mela-O score: Comprehension 2-3, Production 1-2
 - Can use present, past & future tense
 - Can read simple fiction & re-tell the basic elements of fiction (characters, setting & plot)
 - Can read simple non-fiction text (graphs, charts, etc.) & identify the main idea
 - Passes Highpoint "basics level" Test
 - Writing Sample: 1) 5-6 sentence descriptive paragraph (ex: family, favorite place)
2) Friendly Letter
-

ESL Level 2

- Mela-O score: Comprehension 2-3, Production 2-3
 - Can use nouns, verbs and adjectives in a sentence
 - Can complete a simple story map using Highpoint "Level A" Story (story map #1)
 - Has been introduced to a "Book Talk" & Active Reading Strategies
 - Can read simple non-fiction text & complete a 5 W's & H graphic organizer
 - Reading Comprehension Test: Score of 28/35 (80%) on Story Retelling Rubric
 - Passes Highpoint "Level A" Test
 - Writing Sample: 1) 2 Paragraph descriptive paper or personal narrative
2) Friendly Letter
-

ESL Level 3

- Mela-O score: Comprehension 3-4, Production 2-3
 - Can identify adverbs & write compound sentences
 - Can complete a more extensive story map using Highpoint "Level B" Story (story map #2)
 - Can write chapter & story summaries
 - Participates in "Book Talks", Literature Circles & Active Reading Strategies
 - Can read simple non-fiction text & complete an SQ3R
 - Reading Comprehension Test: Score of 28/35 (80%) on Story Retelling Rubric
 - Passes Highpoint "Level B" Test
 - Writing Sample: 1) 3 Paragraph Essay
6th Grade = Personal Narrative
7th Grade = Informative Essay
8th Grade = Persuasive Essay
2) Friendly Letter
-

(OVER)

ESL Level 4

- Mela-O score: Comprehension 4-5, Production 3-4
 - Introduced to prefixes, suffixes & root words
 - Can write compound sentences
 - Participates in more advanced "Book Talks", Literature Circles & Active Reading Strategies
 - Can read "Standard Curriculum" non-fiction text & complete an SQ3R
 - Reading Comprehension Test: Score of 28/35 (80%) on Story Retelling Rubric
 - Passes Highpoint "Level C" Test
 - Writing Sample: 1) 5 Paragraph Essay
 - 6th Grade = Personal Narrative
 - 7th Grade = Informative Essay
 - 8th Grade = Persuasive Essay
 - 2) Friendly Letter
-

ESL Level 5

- Mela-O score: Comprehension 4-5, Production 4-5
- Can write compound/complex sentences
- Can complete a thorough research project
- Writing Sample: 1) Research Piece
- 2) Friendly Letter

APPENDIX B**Interview Protocols****Reflection Questions****October Questionnaire****Final Student Evaluation**

Interview Protocol: # 1 Choosing Topics and Researching
November, 2002

1. Name, age, how long in ESL?
2. What kind of research have you done in the past?
3. What do you think the purpose of research is?
4. How did you come to choose your topic for research?
5. How are you going to go about finding information for your topic?
6. How do you think doing research might help your English?
7. How do you think working with others in the class doing research helps you with your own research?
8. What do you like the best about doing this research project?
9. Have you shared your research interest with your parents? What do they think?
10. What have you found out so far about your research topic?

11. What other new questions do you have about your topic?

12. How do you hope to use the information you find on your topic? How will it affect your personal life?

13. What have you learned about yourself so far by doing this research project?

Interview Protocol # 2 Writing Process Interview March, 2002

1. Can you describe your note taking process to me? What was the most difficult part of note taking for you? What was the easiest? What helped you to be a better note taker?
2. As a result of note taking, what did you learn about yourself as a learner and researcher? What did you learn about yourself as a writer?
3. When we divided the notes into sections, what was your process like? How did you decide which sections to highlight? What did you learn from this process? What did you learn about your topic by doing this?
4. As we begin the drafting process, how do you see yourself organizing your notes and writing? Do you feel confident about your ability to write about your topic?
5. What interests you the most about your topic? What do you want to teach your readers and audience about your topic?
6. As you look through your research notebook, what do you notice about what you have learned so far in research?
7. What are the three most important things that you have learned so far in research class?
8. Are you discovering any surprises about yourself as a learner? A student?

Interview Protocol # 3: Final Drafting Process and Reflections April, 2002

1. As you are finishing up your final draft, what have you found the easiest part of drafting? What have you found the most difficult part?
2. Explain what you have learned as you turned your drafts into the final draft. What steps have been the most helpful?
3. Has teacher feedback and dialogue about your project helped you? How?
4. Has working with your classmates helped you in completing your final draft? How?
5. Explain how your ideas or questions about your project changed over the year. What new questions do you have about your topic? Are there other areas you would like to research?
6. Explain how you have developed as a researcher. What new skills have you learned?
7. Can you describe a time when you really felt excited about your project or what you have learned? How have you shared this excitement?
8. Will your new knowledge about this topic affect what you think and know about yourself as a student? How?
9. Is there anything that you would change or do differently next time you do a research project? Tell me more.
10. Explain what has been the most significant or important aspect of this research project for you.

Interview Protocol: Family and Cultural Issues

1. What kind of economic status do most of our Brazilian students come from?
2. How does this socio-economic status affect their engagement in school work and their desire to go on to college?
3. I have noticed that most eighth grade Brazilian boys work. How is this reflective of their culture?
4. I have noticed that many Brazilian students do not do homework or have a habit of reading. How are these factors reflective of their culture?
5. What do you see as the major difference between the school culture of Brazilian schools and American schools? How can we help Brazilian students become successful readers and writers in U.S. schools?
5. What is the influence of family values on students' school work?
6. When I asked my students if they had shared their research projects with their parents, the majority said, "No." Do you think this is reflective of the kind of parent-child talk that happens at home?
6. Ricardo is a brilliant student but he is not performing to his potential and is often argumentative. Can you tell me anything about his home life that would help me better understand him?

7. Marcos is another Brazilian boy who does not achieve to his potential. He works at night and often does not do homework. As a result of the research project, he told me he thinks he may want to go to college. What can you tell me about Marcos to better understand his achievement?

8. I have noticed that in our research class that most of the Brazilian girls are diligent about their research. However, they are just awakening to the possibility that they may have a better future by going to college. How are women's roles different in Brazil than in the U.S? What are most teenage girls' expectations?

9. Brazilian parents work long hours and students are often left alone or have family chores to do. How does this factor affect students' ability to be successful in school?

10. The Portuguese LA teacher told me that my Brazilian students say that I act just like "uma Brasileira" because I hug and joke with them. How important do you think the student-teacher relationship is in motivating students to do well in school?

Reflection Questions

- 10/30/01** What did you learn about asking questions and the research process?
- 11/07/01** What did you learn so far about research and your topic?
- 11/13/01** What did you learn today from taking notes? What new questions do you have?
- 11/20/01** 1) What is some of the information you have gathered up to this point?
Have you decided on your topic?
2) In what area of research do you need more information?
3) What do you think about the research process?
- 12/14/01** 1) Describe your experience at the public library. What did you learn?
What new questions do you have?
2) What did you learn about yourself as a researcher?
- 1/10/02** 1) Compare your first topic developer (10/30/01) with the new one that you just did.
2) What did you notice about the two topic developers?
- 2/11/02** As you look through your research notebook, what do you notice about what you have learned so far in research?
- 5/31/02** 1) How did you feel before the presentations in the library?
2) How did you feel after presenting your research in the library?
3) What conversations do you remember the most as you talked to people?
Do you remember any of the questions that they asked you? Any special comments?
4) How did this stage of the research process demonstrate your knowledge about your topic?

Final Evaluation of Research Project: May 9, 2002

Please answer the following questions as completely as possible. Your answers are very important to me as they add to our knowledge about bilingual students! Thank you and I'm so proud of the work you have done this year!

1. How have your questions about your project changed over the year. What new questions do you have about your topic? Are there any other areas you would like to research?
2. Describe how you have developed as a researcher. What new research skills have you learned?
3. By doing this project, have you changed your opinion about yourself as a student or learner? Please explain.
4. What was your favorite part of doing this project? Explain.
5. What new skills as a reader and writer have you gained? How has your English improved?
6. Is there anything you would change or do differently next time you do a research project? Explain.
7. If you were to do another research project, describe the steps you would follow.
8. What has been the most important part of this research project for you as a person and as a student? Please describe.
9. What advice would you give to ESL teachers about doing a research project with their class? Do you think this is a good way to teach Language Arts? Explain.
10. Please add any other comments you have about this research class and accomplishing a final research project.

Thank you! Mil Gracias!! Muito obrigada! Ms. Bearse

APPENDIX C**Teacher Reflections (Bears)****Field Notes (Bears & Hamilton)****Cooperating Teacher Questionnaire**

Nov. 2, 2001

I was surprised today that Miguel brought into class two books on engineering that he took out of the Framingham Library on his own initiative. He still complains each time that this class is boring, but he is always making insightful comments such as “I take notes my own way—it works for me!” As I was teaching double entry journals, most students understood how to take notes and then ask questions of the notes. I also showed them how to draw diagrams to summarize information or remember key points.

I used an article about whaling on the overhead to teach the process. As we read each paragraph, I asked students to tell me what the key points would be and I underlined those on the overhead. As we completed two pages of this process, we then moved on to double entry or interactive notebooks. In this process, students take notes on the right hand side of the page, and on the left side they ask questions or make comments about their notes. I am hoping that this process will lead to more interactive reading and connecting with the text. Also, when they take their own notes from their research, this process could lead to more questions.

The students were very giggly and talkative today—maybe it’s Friday or the full moon or the late afternoon class. It seemed they had trouble focusing; many students commented this lesson was boring. Is it because it’s not about their topic or a vested topic of interest? I wonder, too, if this is where explicit instruction doesn’t work as well as just delving into the process? Do kids learn to take notes better by trial and error and through the process? I’m still not sure about this. I just don’t know the answer to this. I’m anxious to see what happens in the library tomorrow.

However, Tracey’s scribing notes do remind me that some students are now really thinking about asking questions as they read. For example, Nadia asked: “Why don’t they just use the large boat?” (to catch the whales) I answered, “Because they can’t get close to the whales. That’s a great question, Nadia. You could put that on the left side of your notebook.” Another question came up after reading the description of a “Nantucket sleigh ride.” I ask, “What is a sleigh?” Melina answers that it is like a sled. Pablo contributes by saying that it is what Santa uses! By clarifying meaning by connecting ideas to personal knowledge, students had a better understanding of what was meant by taking a Nantucket sleigh ride!

There was also quite a lot of discussion about why a sperm whale is valuable. Nadia: “Yuck, we use sperm for hand cream!” So, despite my reservations and students’ comments about how “boring this is”, many good questions were generated. I then asked them to spend the last 15 minutes reading the next two pages and taking notes.

During the discussion, Mariela asked Ms Hamilton, “How is this connected to research, miss?” My cooperating teacher answers: “This teaches you how to take notes on the books you will use for your research.” Ms Hamilton’s scribing is invaluable to me because she captures a lot of the rich comments that I don’t catch while I am teaching the lesson.

I also decided today that I will keep my diary and field notes in a separate notebook so it will be easier to keep my data in place and ask myself questions as I reflect on the process.

1-7-02

Part I today - printed out information from computer lab.

students went immediately to search engines to search for info printed out new information -

- stressed the imp. of wrapping up research in January so we can start drafting in Feb

- worked with developer - lots of absences handles Mrs school work - way behind - still wanting to find out about SWAT teams did some searching on internet

- refused to go to D Day website even though he showed me a website he had found. instead he printed out a military manual: Sun Tzu - The Art of War - is this connected?

- discussed meaning of words - said - "I had to write down the meaning of the words!" started to

write down meaning of words over hand words - Progress!!

once settled & separated in 645 worked harder on taking notes

* Next time - have students compare topic developers & write a reflection @ what they notice - also suggest developing a logo the way Massimo did!

Continue taking notes -

* Interview - last focus interview

* I type up new permission slip for library

1-10-02 * met me in the hall to talk to me @

1-10-02 The book he found in the library.

- Students write reflections about their topic developers - rebelled at first - needed direction as to what to look for I asked the initial question: "Compare topic developer from 10/21 to Dec. 5 topic developer? What did you notice?"
Mrs. ~~seen~~ turned out to be for

Ms. Hamilton's Field Notes

December 3, 2001

Darlana

"Some of us need more library time. We don't have enough materials to take notes."

I think Roberto has a good point about wanting to read a lot more before taking notes - maybe this is his natural way to do research.

Nadia → Asked about why the book is talking about God. What does God have to do with animals?

She is very confused about this. But I think she just needs to connect with me or you because she is so isolated from the other girls. She really needs her hand held.

Cooperating Teacher Questionnaire, April, 2002

1. What were your concerns or ideas about this research project in the early stages of the project?
2. Were there any changes that occurred in your own thinking about middle school ESL students doing research while cooperating in this project? Please explain.
3. What insights have you gained about your students from observing them doing this project?
4. Have your ideas about pedagogy or methods of teaching ESL changed in any way? Please explain.
5. How has this research informed your own teaching and thinking?
6. From your perspective, what do you think is the most valuable aspect(s) of this project? Is there a part or parts of this research project that you would use in your teaching?
7. What connections have you seen students making in Language Arts and Social Studies that might be related to the Research course?
8. What do you see as the role of teacher research to inform practice? How has having a teacher-researcher in your class affected your own thinking about teacher research?
9. In the long term, would you incorporate this kind of project in your own LA curriculum again? Why or Why not? Explain.
10. What new questions do you have about teaching, student learning, and teacher research as a result of this project?

Please feel free to add any additional comments!

Thank you so much for taking time to write and reflect on these questions. You have been an invaluable colleague in this teacher-researcher endeavor!!

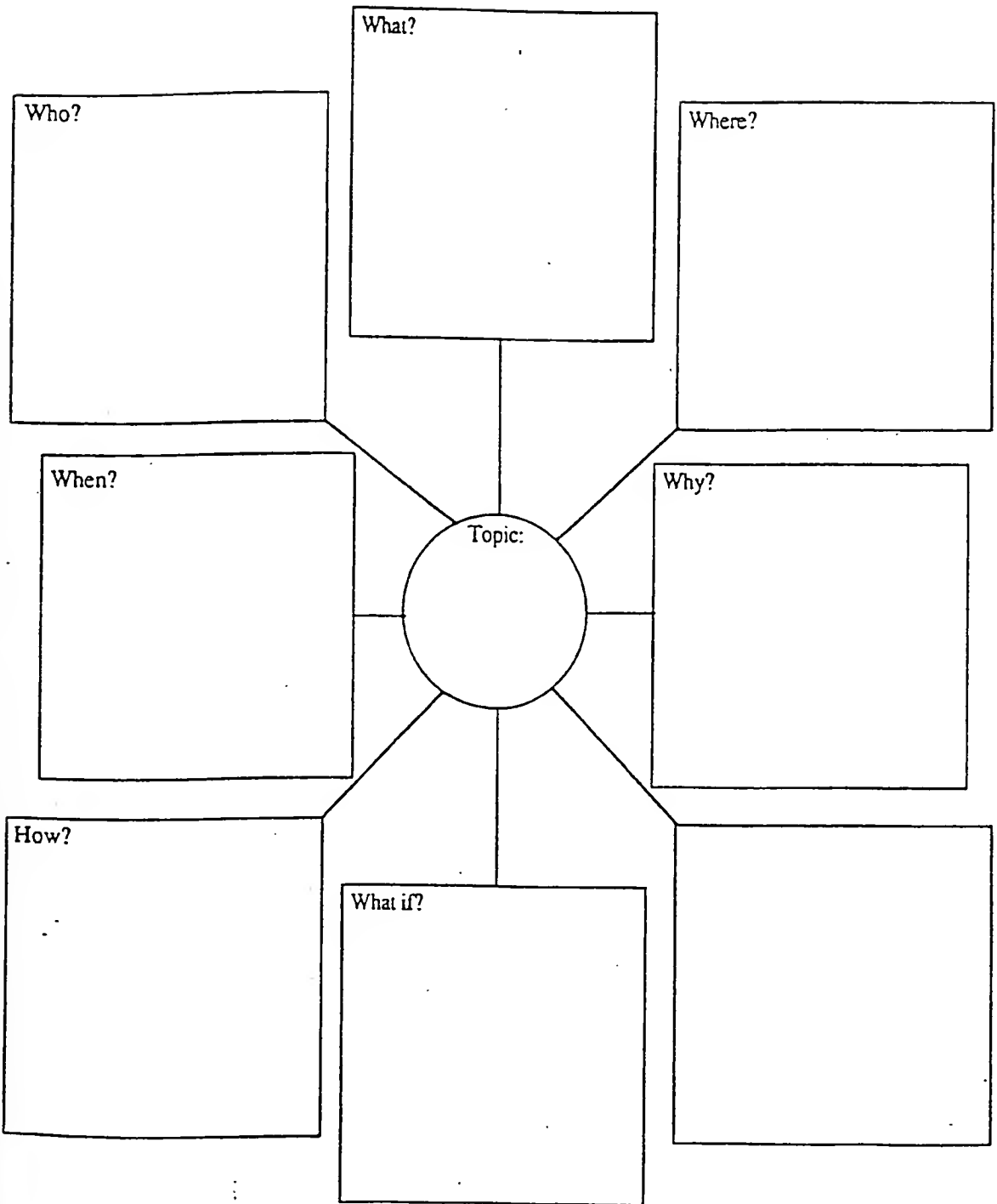
Carol Bearse

APPENDIX D

Graphic Organizers

Paragraph Frame

Checklist



Q - MATRIX

EVENT SITUATION CHOICE PERSON REASON MEANS

| | | | | | | |
|-------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| PRESENT | 1 What Is? | 2 Where/ When Is? | 3 Which Is? | 4 Who Is? | 5 Why Is? | 6 How Is? |
| PAST | 7 What Did? | 8 Where/ When Did? | 9 Which Did? | 10 Who Did? | 11 Why Did? | 12 How Did? |
| POSSIBILITY | 13 What Can? | 14 Where/ When Can? | 15 Which Can? | 16 Who Can? | 17 Why Can? | 18 How Can? |
| PROBABILITY | 19 What Would? | 20 Where/ When Would? | 21 Which Would? | 22 Who Would? | 23 Why Would? | 24 How Would? |
| PREDICTION | 25 What Will? | 26 Where/ When Will? | 27 Which Will? | 28 Who Will? | 29 Why Will? | 30 How Will? |
| IMAGINATION | 31 What Might? | 32 Where/ When Might? | 33 Which Might? | 34 Who Might? | 35 Why Might? | 36 How Might? |

From: Resources for Teachers by Spencer Kagan

About The Author

My name is.....and I amyears old. I am in Grade 8 at Middle School. I am in an ESL 4 class and take all my classes in English except for Spanish or Portuguese Language Arts.

I live in , MA with my..... Brothers, sisters, and..... MY sister's name is.....and isyears old.

I have been in the United States foryears. MY native country is.....and I speakand English.

MY favorite hobbies are.....

In my spare time I like to.....

Next year I will be going toTech or High School.

I want to study.....

My future goals are to become.....

This is my first published research project.

APPENDIX E**Rubrics**

**Rubric for the Final Draft of Research Project
May 6, 2002**

| | <u>Strong (6)</u> The finished piece includes all the steps of the Research Process and has a strong written final report. | <u>Average (4)</u> The finished piece includes most of the steps of the Research Process and has an adequate written final report. | <u>Weak (2)</u> The finished piece includes few of the steps of the Research Process and has a weak written report. |
|---|---|---|--|
| Researching: at least 5 sources | Includes between 4-5 sources. | Includes at least 3 sources. | Includes between 0-2 sources. |
| Use of Internet | Is proficient in the use of Internet search engines and includes at least two internet sources. | Is adequate in the use of Internet search engines and includes at least one internet source. | Is weak in the use of Internet search engines and includes no internet sources. |
| Other data sources: Interview, charts, photos | Includes in the Appendix or in the Body at least 2 other data sources. | Includes in the Appendix at least 1 other data sources. | Has no Appendix or does not include other data sources in the Body of the Report. |
| Note-taking | Has between 10-15 pages of notes in author's own words. | Has at least 10 pages of notes in author's own words. | Has less than 10 pages of notes in author's own words. |
| Drafting Process: 10-15 pages | Final Report is between 13-15 pages in length. All ideas are in the author's own words. | Final report is between 10-12 pages in length. Most ideas are in the author's own ideas. | Final report is at least 10 pages in length. Few ideas are in the author's own words. |
| Organization: Section headings | All sections of report are separated by clear section headings. | Most sections of report are marked by clear section headings. | Few sections of report are marked by clear section headings. |
| Sentence Complexity | Most sentences in final written report contain compound or compound-complex sentences with use of numerous transition words. | An adequate number of sentences contain compound or compound-complex sentences with use of an adequate number of transition words. | Few sentences contain compound or compound-complex sentences with little use of transition words. |
| Academic Vocabulary | Final report has many content words | Final report has average vocabulary. | Final report has few content words. |

| | | | |
|---|---|--|---|
| Mechanics: Verb tenses, spelling, punctuation | With minor exceptions, verb tenses, spelling, and punctuation are correct. (No more than 7 mistakes). | There may be between 8-12 verb tense, spelling, and punctuation mistakes. | There are more than 12 verb tense, spelling and punctuation mistakes. |
| Citations | Final report contains at least 3 cited sources in the Body of the report. | Final report contains at least 2 cited sources in the Body of the report. | Final report contains between 0-1 cited sources in the Body of the report. |
| Bibliography | Bibliography contains between 4-5 sources written in APA format. | Bibliography contains at least 3 sources written in APA format. | Bibliography contains between 0-2 sources written in APA format. |
| Table of Contents | The format is neat and corresponds to the Body of the Report. | The format contains several mistakes in presentation. | The Table of Contents is missing or contains little formatting. |
| Title Page | The presentation is neat and follows an academic format. | The presentation contains several mistakes. | The presentation does not follow an academic format. |
| Visual Presentation | The Display Board is visually attractive and contains the Research Question supported by many photos, charts, and graphs. | The Display Board is visually attractive and contains the Research Question supported by several photos, charts, and graphs. | The Display Board shows little attention to visual use of color, contains the Research Question supported by few photos, charts, or graphs. |
| Oral Presentation | Displays a strong ability to engage the audience and present knowledge about the topic in a professional manner. | Displays an average ability to engage the audience and present knowledge about the topic in a professional manner. | Displays a weak ability to engage the audience and present knowledge about the topic in a professional manner. |

Total Possible Points Equals 100 points with 10 points added for engaging in the research process.

90-100=A

80-89=B

70-79=C

60-69=D

Roberto

Rubric for the Final Draft of Research Project
May 6, 2002

| | Strong (6) | Average (4) | Weak (2) |
|---|------------|-------------|----------|
| Researching: at least 5 sources | 5 | | |
| Use of Internet | 6 | | |
| Other data sources: Interview, charts, photos | | | 2 |
| Note-taking | | 4 | |
| Drafting Process: 10-15 pages | 6 | | |
| Organization: Section headings | 6 | | |
| Sentence Complexity | 6 | | |
| Academic Vocabulary | 6 | | |
| Mechanics: Verb tenses, spelling, punctuation | 5 | | |
| Citations | | | 0 |
| Bibliography | 6 | | |
| Table of Contents | 6 | | |
| Title Page | 6 | | |
| Visual Presentation | 6 | | |
| Oral Presentation | 6 | | |

Total Points: $76 + 10 = 86 = B+$

Teacher Comments:

Dear Roberto,

You did a brilliant job of reading, researching, and writing this in your own words. I am most proud of you for this academic and critical writing.

If you had remained more focussed throughout the project, you would have found more sources (to put in your notes!!) and added an Appendix.

Your visual presentation demonstrates your brilliant use of the internet. →
ms Bearse



Mariela

Rubric for the Final Draft of Research Project
May 6, 2002

| | Strong (6) | Average (4) | Weak (2) |
|---|------------|-------------|----------|
| Researching: at least 5 sources | 5 | | |
| Use of Internet | 6 | | |
| Other data sources: Interview, charts, photos | 6 | | |
| Note-taking | 6 | | |
| Drafting Process: 10-15 pages | 5 | | |
| Organization: Section headings | 6 | | |
| Sentence Complexity | 6 | | |
| Academic Vocabulary | 6 | | |
| Mechanics: Verb tenses, spelling, punctuation | 5 | | |
| Citations | 6 | | |
| Bibliography | 6 | | |
| Table of Contents | 6 | | |
| Title Page | 6 | | |
| Visual Presentation | 6 | | |
| Oral Presentation | | 3 | |

Total Points: $84 + 10 = 94 = A^-$

Teacher Comments:

Dear Mariela,

I am so proud of your hard work!! You have made tremendous progress in English this year, and your ~~at~~ writing and project demonstrate new vocabulary and clearer sentences!! I am also proud of your use of The Internet and your new research skills! Congratulations!!

Ms Bearse



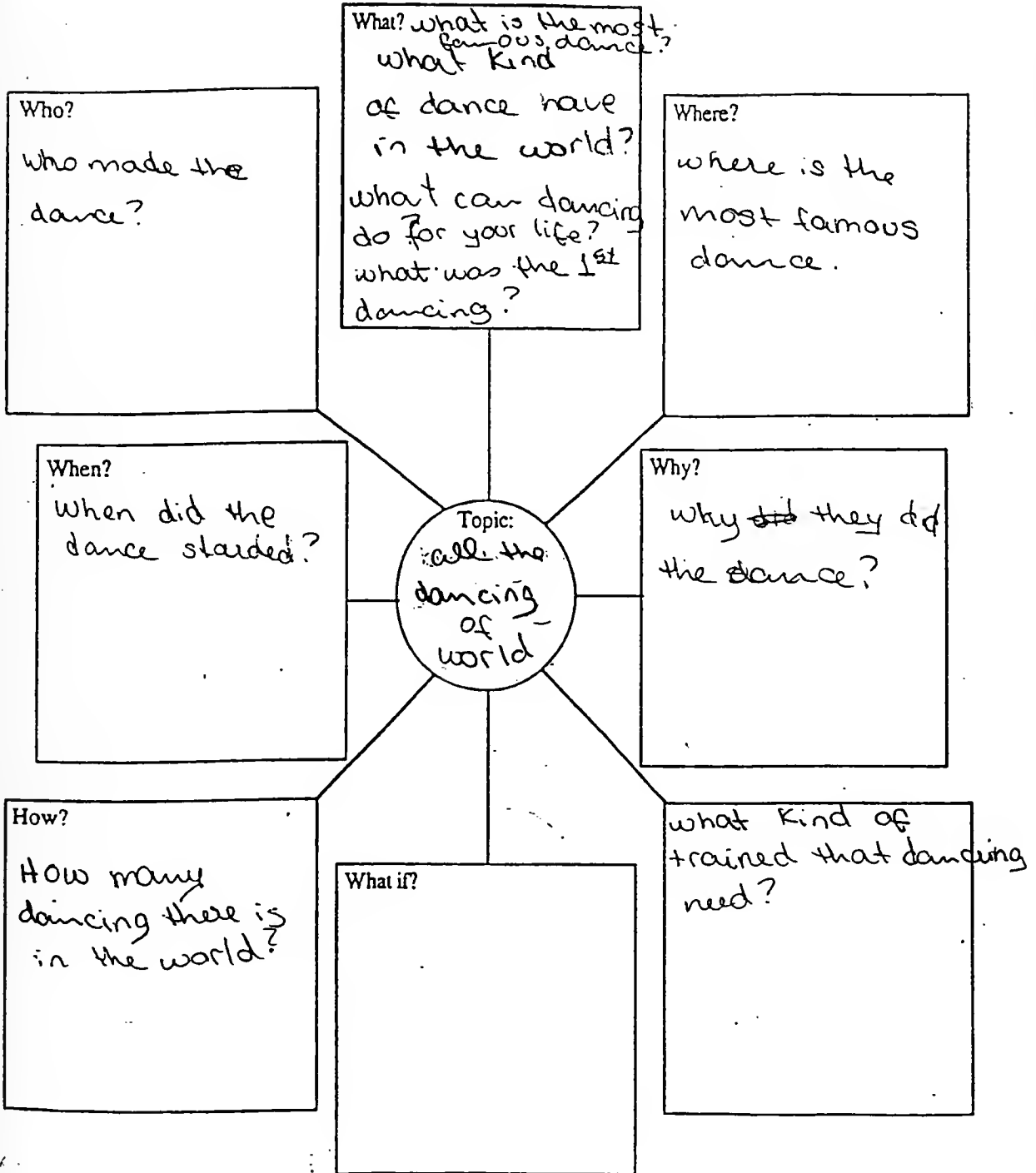
APPENDIX F

Student Writing: The Four Case Studies

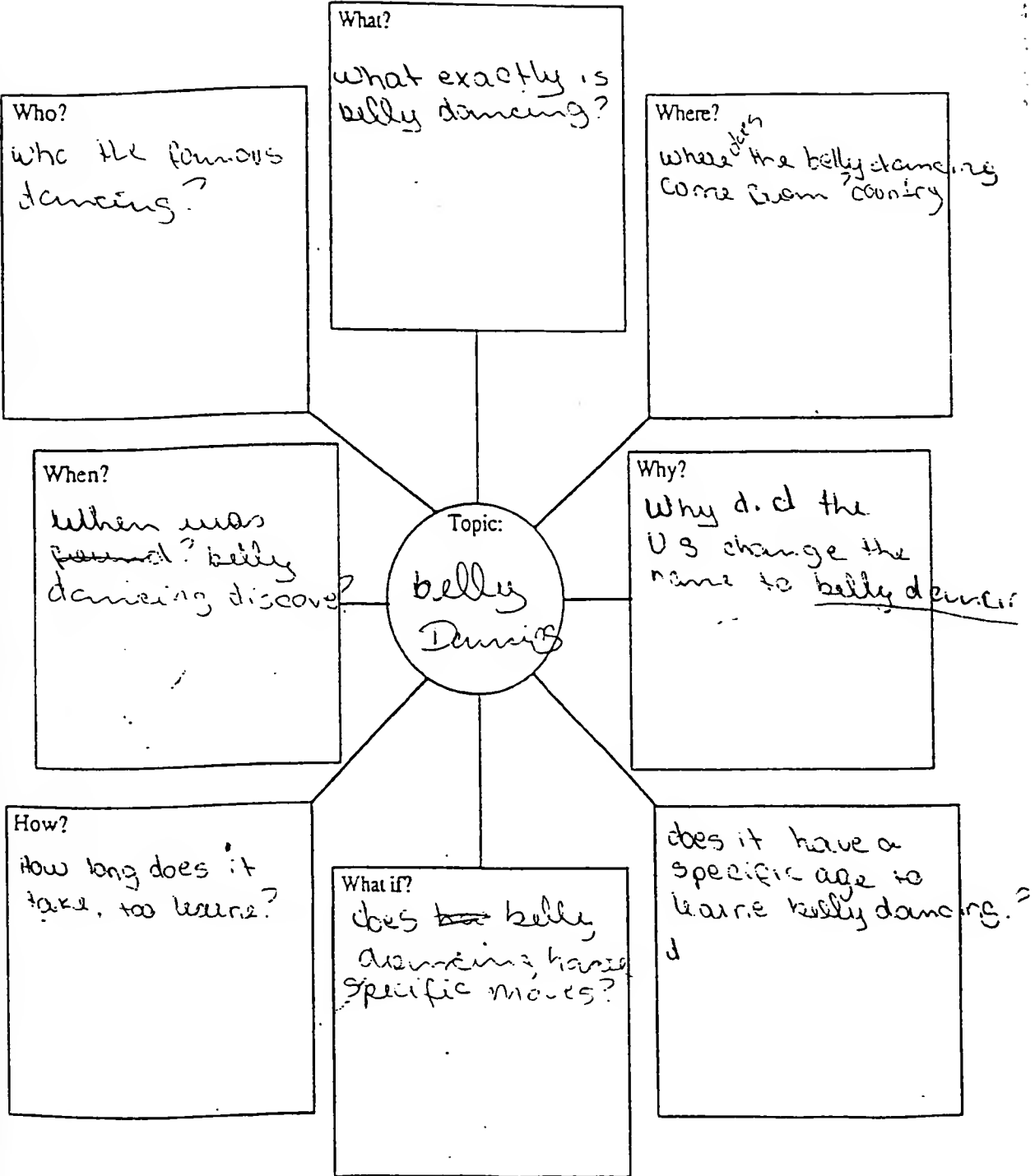
Their Writing Processes

10.21.01
samba

Mariela



1-2-02



Notes Book

author: Wilson, Alan and Serena

Book title: The Serena Technique of Belly Dancing

The fun way to a trim shape.

Place of publication: New York

Publisher: Cornerstone Library Publication.

Date of Publication: 1975

The History of Dance pp 11-21

- The belly dance was the first dance that the women could ever done in a longe time ago.
- They think that the dance is a communicate with one another or with God as in religious dances.
- People believe that belly dancing ^{goes} ~~goes~~ back 15000 year ~~before~~ B.C because of the drawing in the cave.
- the dance was so sexualy that we couldn't see today because long time ago they were dancing almost naked



- the dancer should be proud of her costume.

- It's very important to the dancer wear the most beautiful and elegant dress.

- The belly dance is in the ^(whole) ~~hot~~ Middle Eastern, and have a common art with different variations and styles.

- it is also important to understand the language, to properly interpret the feelings, emotions and meanings of the song.

- Most of the Americans believe that all the belly dance is female.

- Belly dance is performed by both sexes in these traditional

- In the middle East men dance more of the folkloric dances.

• the belly dancer brings joy to the Islamic people.

12-19-0

Frequently Asked Questions

what exactly is Belly Dancing?

- is an art form with a rich cultural heritage
- in the belly dancing there isn't just one type of rhythms there is a lot of like $4/4$, $6/8$, $9/8$, and $12/8$

12-19-0

What does petite tall or slender and sub-figured women can use for belly dancing?

body type The petite ^{women} has to use a limit colors they had to match ~~the~~ proportions. the bra, belt, cuffs and jewelry had to be scaled to the body size. the patterns had to be vertical or diagonal lines, and they can use an interesting headscarf or neckscarf to draw the eye up

03-18-01

What is belly dancing?

what is bly / dancing

- belly dancing is the oldest form of dance
- the ~~negative thing~~ ^{women's ideas} about belly dancing is that it is ~~created~~ ^{great} to entertain men
- * but belly dancing was a traditionally ~~performed~~ ^{performed} for women during pregnancy or to preparing for marriage and usually men was not allowed to be there.

• www.bellydance.org/ ~~has~~ ^{costumes} ~~that~~ say that belly dancing

- some american doesn't use what ~~the~~ ^{the} ~~does~~ ^{the} ~~the~~ ^{the} egypt
- some americans doesn't use symbols because some egyptians doesn't use ~~too~~ ^{too} so they think ~~us~~ ^{us} they have to use to.

make up

Make up

- Do use a flat white pencil instead.
- Don't use a dark brown or black line in ~~the~~ the lips instead ~~of~~ - use a color 2-3 darker than the lipstick.
this will

some moings are accompanied by a strong consistent drumbeat and possibly chanting

-the movements are typically very repetitive

-the combination of rhythmic repetitive sound and repetitive motion can lead to a hypnotic state

name of editor - Shira

Title of Page: Belly Questions

Title of page Group: ?

Personal Web Page

name of author / editor - Shira

project of page Title: Belly Questions

~~date created / read~~

When You read It. 11/15/01

web address ([http://](http://www.shira.net/bellyquestions)) - [www:shira.net/belly questions](http://www.shira.net/bellyquestions)

Name of author / editor - ~~Soraya~~ Soraya

Project of page Title: The history, Heritage and Memoirs

~~date created / read~~

When you read it - 11/15/01

web address - <http://www.admint.com/soraya/history.htm>

name of author - Shira

project of page Title - ~~about~~ styles of Belly dancing in
united states

when you read it - 11-14-01

web address - <http://www.shira.net/styles.htm>

02-11-6

outlining - Belly-Dancing

I - History

A - Middle East

B - Ancient times

C - Other places

D - Meanings

II - Body Type

A - Petite women

B - tall and slender women

C - full figured women

III - Make up

A - what to use

B - what to not use

IV - what is Belly dance?

A - what they use

B - Americans and Egyptians way to think

C - heritage and Memoirs

D - About Belly dance

V - Dance Styles

A - Name of Dance

B - Country (Gypsy)

C - Sacred Dance

?i?The Mysterious Dance Of Morocco?i?

DRAFT *@*Belly Dancing*@*

Do you want to change your title to
 * The mysterious Dance of the middle East
 ((You talk about more places Than Morocco))

I didn't choose this topic because I think that it is important. I just chose it because I would do anything to learn how to dance. At first I chose to search about dance, but there ^{are} too many kinds of dances so that's why I chose belly dancing because it's a different dance that not everybody knows exists.

The purpose of this paper is to learn about belly dancing. I will look at four aspects of my topic: History, Body Type, Make Up, and the meaning of Belly Dancing.

First, I will look at the History of Belly Dancing. The History that I'm going to look at is the History of Middle Eastern dance, Ancient times and some dance styles from other places.

Then, secondly, I will look at the Body Types of belly dancing. The Body Type that I'm going to look at is about Petite Women, Tall and Slender Women, and Full Figured Women.

Thirdly, I will look at the Make Up, and the costume of belly dancers.

Fourthly, I will look at the meaning of belly dancing, and the ways that the Americans and Egyptians think about belly dancing, heritage and memories.

03/27/02

~*~ Body Type ~*~

Petite Women:

The petite women has to use limited colors. They have to watch the proportions: the bra, belt, cuffs, and jewelry have to be scaled to the body size. The fabrics have to be vertical or diagonal lines and they can use an interesting headpiece or necklace to draw the eye up here. Use clean lines, don't wear too many accessories or the person can look like a tiny Christmas tree.

For the Tall and Slender:

The tall and slender women must use at least three colors because differing colors will break up the line and give more proportioned look. Use horizontal lines and circle shirt and can be able to pull off accessories and different styles of bras and belt.

For Full Figured Women:

Full figured women use limited colors, can't wear the "skimpy" look, or anything overly tight. The bra has to fit to cover the person. She needs to wear the belt higher on the hips. It is better to use fabrics with vertical lines and long "V" shapes to cover the belly.

03/27/02

~*~ Make Up ~*~

The belly dancers shouldn't use a lot of make up. It is better to use a highlighter on the apples of the cheeks. Never use glitter white eye shadow under the brown. Instead use a flat white pencil. Avoid using a dark brown or black line in the lips. Instead use a color, 2-3 times darker than the lipstick so this will define the lips, but still appear natural.

“Take extra care when doing your eyes. The eyes are the window of the soul.”

(www.bellydancinggoytihad.com/costume.html). For centuries women in the Middle East have been veiled, revealed only by their eyes. They want to show beautiful eyes with their make up. Blondes and redheads should use brown eye liners, so as not to give a hard look, while brunettes can wear brown-black to black colors.

03/27/02

The History Of Belly Dancing

Belly dancing doesn't have a documented history, but there are many different beliefs. Belly dancing is also called "as danse du vent, balady shifti telli, raks sharqui," and is popular in Middle East and Near East. Some people believe that ^{belly dancing} started in India. The Belly Dance was the first dance that the women could do a long time ago. They think that the dance is a communication with one another or with God as in religious dances. People believe that belly dancing goes back 15,000-year B.C because of the drawing in the cave. B.C people believe that having children ~~ff~~ was very mysterious so when the women danced, the man thought that they were goddesses. The dance was too sexual so we couldn't accept it today because a long time ago they were dancing almost naked.

Belly Dance was first used by the French when they saw the movies. Belly Dancing was first brought to America over 100 years ago during the Chicago World Fair. This was in 1893. The section was called, "Little Egypt".

Belly Dancing is a connection between mind and body. It is a celebration of the movement. "Something as beautiful as the belly dancing can't be exploited, unless it is placed ⁽¹⁾ into the wrong hands" (www.du.edu/~selnashi/history.html). Belly dance is in the whole Middle East, and has a common art with different variations and styles.

It is also important to understand the language, to properly interpret the feeling, emotions, and meanings of the song. Most of the Americans believe all the belly dancers are female. Belly dance is performed by both sexes in their traditional culture. In the

03/27/0* ~*~ More About Belly Dancing ~*~

Belly Dancing is an art form with a rich cultural heritage, and was traditionally performed to prepare for marriage. Usually men were not allowed to be there. In belly dancing there isn't just one type of rhythm, there are a lot of rhythms, like 4/4, 6/8, 9/8, and 12/8. Some Americans don't use ^{cymbals} symbols because some Egyptians don't use too, so they think why do they have to use them too?

The zills is an instrument that the dancer uses today. It is the same one back to 200 B.C. The interesting ^{?? your word??} accessories used during the dance are: swords, snakes, large vessels, huge candelabras complete with flaming candles. Belly dancing with veils hadn't been documented before the 1900's but it is now quite popular throughout the world.

There are four different styles of belly dancing: folk, ethnic, historical, and authentic. Ethnic is Romany Gypsy belly dance. This style of dance comes from Turkey, Russian, Morocco, Spain etc. The Sacred dance comes from Ancient Middle East. It includes some rituals, two of them ^{are} called zar and guedra. Zar is to drive away bad spirits. Guedra is for the good spirits.

Some moves are accompanied by a strong consistent drumbeat and possibly chanting. The movements are typically very repetitive. The combination of rhythmic repetitive sound and repetitive motion can lead to a hypnotic state.

The belly dance of today is a relative of an ancient dance. Belly dance was originated and performed by women in honor of the Great Mother.

03/27/02

Middle East men dance more of the folkloric dances. The belly dance brings joy to the Islamic people.

An interesting part of belly dancing's history is: "The Ouled Nail served the main oases of the Sahara, and some of the towns became notorious resorts because of their business there, and are still notorious to this day. In 1893, a man named Sol Bloom brought the first glimpses of belly dance to America by sponsoring various groups from the Middle East and North African to perform in the Chicago World's Fair. The Ouled Nail was among these tribes. Their music uses traditional instruments and can be found today on a wonderful recording by Aisha Ali, entitled "Music of the Ouled Nail".

(<http://www.bellydanceuk.co.uk/oulednailpage.html>)

Belly dancing is good to make the muscles stronger in the belly for having a baby.

03/27/02

Belly dancing is:

- Flashes of gold glitter and coins.
- Tassels that fly.
- Big dangly earrings.
- Bare feet slinging across wooden floors.
- Moving midriffs.
- Thin skirt swaying sensuously.
- Hips moving to haunting.
- Arabic music.
- Loose hair swaying softly.

(cite source here)

03/27/02

Music

A single nightclub show in the United States ⁽¹⁾ will include music from several nationalities: Turkish, Arabic, Greek, Armenian, Israeli, and others. American nightclub dancers will often choose songs with very simple musical arrangement. There are a number of U.S. based musicians (Oasis, Brother Of The Baladi, Sirocco, Jazayer, Ramal, Lamar, Jalaludin, and Desert Wind, to name a few) who have recorded music suitable for belly dancing.

The tribal fusion music includes both Arabic music and Turkish music in the dance, and maybe even some Greek, Armenian, or Jewish music. A tribal-style dancer will probably select songs with very simple musical arrangements based on traditional instrument⁽²⁾, such as just an oud and a dumbek, or just a kanoon and a dumbek. She may use music based on folk songs, or songs from 50 years ago or more. Many tribal dancers will use karsilama or debke into their performances because its folk dance roots are very important to the tribal look. Drum solos are also an excellent element to include in a tribal dance.

can you find pictures of these??
or explain

An Egyptian-style dancer is likely to use only Arabic music. Egyptian music for raqs sharqi (the Egyptian name for belly dance) is generally entirely instrumental, including instrumental versions of popular songs from the past as well as newer material that was designed from the outset to be instrumental. Recently, American dancers performing Egyptian-style shows have been incorporating popular vocal music into their shows, such as that sung by Amr Diab, Warda, Ragab Alame, and Melhem Barakat.

(<http://www.shira.net/styles.htm#Music>)

This needs a section heading!!

Good info!!!

03/27/02

- Costume items generally made of natural fibers (usually cotton, though sometimes people use silk)
- Tendency to choose primarily muted colors, possibly using a splash of bright color as an accent
- Use of assuit fabric (if the dancer can afford it)
- Tendency to prefer a look that covers the legs and the midriff
- Any glittery stuff on the costumes probably is in the form of coins, mozunas, assuit, or shisha mirrors, unless the dancer used fabric from India that had lurex designs in it such as sari fabric
- Some costume pieces made of striped fabric.

Hip Accents

- Coin belt
- Macrame belt decorated with coins, shisha mirrors, mozunas, and/or camel tassels
- Hip scarf (either triangular or rectangular) decorated with coins, cloth fringe, mozunas, or camel tassels
- Fringed shawl

Jewelry

- Afghani jewelry
- Jewelry in the style of the North Africa nomad tribes (for example, dowry necklace)
- Jewelry made out of coins, bells from India, and chains

Tops

- Coin bra
- Choli top
- Some sort of cropped top that covers the bust and shoulders, and comes just below the bustline. May or may not have sleeves
- Vest
- Tunic-style top, which may or may not have sleeves, as the dancer wishes

Overall Garments

- Ghawazee coat with a blouse and pantaloons underneath
- baladi dress--if the legs are slit, probably pantaloons underneath
- Caftan
- Tunic, which may be hip length, knee length, or full length

Bottoms

- One or more skirts--most likely a "panel skirt" made of two rectangles of fabric, one in front and one in back, wide enough to give a covered look.
- Most likely NOT a circle skirt, but if a circle skirt is chosen, it will probably have seams where the panels meet rather than being left open as a slit.
- Most likely NOT a straight skirt with a slit up the side.
- A multi-tiered skirt, where each tier is fuller than the one above it and gathered to fit. This style is frequently used by people who want to incorporate Gypsy-style elements into their performances.
- Pantaloons

(source — ?)

put here at the end.

03/27/02

Makeup

- Eyeliner used to draw facial tattoos in the style of North Africa nomad tribes on the face
- Henna, especially on the hands and soles of the feet

*don't use
if you
don't have
photo.*

This photograph of Izora provides a close-up look at her headdress, jewelry, and facial tattoos. In the tradition of North Africa, kohl around the eyes is there as protection from the sun and evil spirits. The tattoo on the chin is to identify which tribe she came from. PHOTO CREDIT: Photo by Sue Swindlehurst. Used with permission from Izora.

Accessories

- Some kind of headdress, particularly that covers the hair. Scarves are popular and easy to find. FatChanceBellyDance uses turbans. North African headdresses, particularly resembling the type that resemble those worn by nomad tribes, complement the look very well. Tribal dancers rarely appear bare-headed--they almost always have some kind of headdress.
- For footwear, either barefoot (if you're brave and like to take risks) or tan-colored Hermes sandals. No high heels!

(<http://www.shira.net/styles.htm#Music>)

03/28/02

Section Title - American
Belly Dancing

In the "traditional" American routine, the dancer wears finger cymbals and uses them in all the fast/medium songs. The dancer might also ^{choose} opt to use them during the slower songs, but often doesn't. It used to be, in the 1970's and 1980's, that a dancer who didn't use finger cymbals was effectively admitting she wasn't good enough with them to play them in public--so people wore them if they were trying to present themselves as a professional-quality dancer.

style?
or
Use of
Finger
Cymbals
The zills

→ The fact that finger cymbals have NOT been widely used in Egypt recently has led to some American dancers deciding it's okay not to use zills themselves, even when doing American nightclub style. They just put on an Egyptian costume and select Egyptian club-style music for part of their dance, and say they don't need to wear zills because the Egyptians don't--even if their dance structure is classic American 7-part with some sections using non-Egyptian music. The result is that recently an increasing number of American-style dancers don't wear finger cymbals, and then when they start teaching other belly dancers they don't bother to teach zill work. At this point, the majority of American-style dancers do still use cymbals, and most teachers still believe it is important to teach and perform finger cymbals.

03/28/02

Egyptian Raqs Sharqi Finger Cymbals

In Egypt, dancers who are skilled at playing finger cymbals usually do so. Those are not skilled at playing finger cymbals will hire a musician to play them for her in the band--a recent development.

In the 1980's and 1990's, as American dancers began to visit Egypt or buy videos of Egyptian dancers, it became fashionable for American dancers who ~~prefer~~ ^{say they} to do "Egyptian style" to NOT wear finger cymbals, although individual artists will sometimes ~~opt~~ ^{choose} to do so.

Many American dancers who embrace Egyptian style will play finger cymbals, either because they enjoy doing so, or because the restaurants where they perform expect them.

(<http://www.shira.net/styles.htm>)

Dear Gabriela,

I am so proud of your work!!
You have included a lot of very good information.!!

I think you may want to change your title - Also, look at each page to fix editing mistakes and rewrite some words.

Ms Beause ☺

Belly Dancin'g



Mariela

May 6, 2002

Research Class

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| Interview Questions | |

Introduction

I didn't choose this topic because I think that it is important, I just chose it because I would do anything to learn how to dance. At first I chose to search About Dance, but there is too many kinds of dances so that's why I chose belly dancing because it's a different dance that not everybody knows exists.

The purpose of this paper is to learn about belly dancing. I will look at seven aspects of my topic: History, Body Type, Make Up, Music, More About Belly Dancing, More Important Information About Belly Dancing, American Belly Dancing Style.

First, I will look at the History of Belly Dancing, The History that I'm going to look at is the History of Middle Eastern dance, Ancient times and some dance styles from other places.

Then, secondly, I will look at the Body Type of belly dancing. The Body Type that I'm going to look at is about Petite Women, Tall and Slender Women, and Full Figured Women.

Thirdly, I will look at the make up that belly dancers use. I will also describe the beautiful costumes of belly dancers.

Fourthly, I will tell about the music that the belly dancers use and the names of the instruments too, and where the music comes from.

Fifthly, I will describe the instruments and other objects used in belly dancing, such as zills and swords.

Sixthly, I will tell a little bit of every thing like makeup, costumes, jewelry and accessories.

Finally, I will describe the style of American belly dancing.

The History Of Belly Dancing

Belly dancing doesn't have a documented history, but there are many different beliefs. Belly dancing is also called "as danse du venture, balady shifti telli, raks sharqui," and is popular in Middle East and Near East. Some people believe that belly dancing started in India. The Belly Dance was the first dance that the women could do a long time ago. They think that the dance is a communication with one another or with God as in religious dances. People believe that belly dancing goes back 15,000-year B.C because of the drawing in the cave. B.C people believe that having children was very mysterious so when the women danced, the man thought that they were goddesses. The dance was too sexual so we couldn't accept it today, because a long time ago they were dancing almost naked.

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Middle East men dance more of the folkloric dances. The belly dance brings joy to the Islamic people.

An interesting part of belly dancing's history is: " The Ouled Nail served the main oases of the Sahara, and some of the towns became notorious resorts because of their business there, and are still notorious to this day. In 1893, a man named Sol Bloom brought the first glimpses of belly dance to America by sponsoring various groups from the Middle East and North African to perform in the Chicago World's Fair. The Ouled Nail was among these tribes. Their music uses traditional instruments and can be found today on a wonderful recording by Aisha Ali, entitled "Music of the Ouled Nail".

(<http://www.bellydanceuk.co.uk/oulednailpage.html>)

Belly dancing is good to make the muscles stronger in the belly for having a baby.

~*~ BODY TYPE ~*~

Petite Women:

The petite women has to use limited colors. They have to watch the proportions: the bra, belt, cuffs, and jewelry have to be scaled to the body size. The fabrics have to be vertical or diagonal lines and they can use an interesting headpiece or necklace to draw the eye up here. Use clean lines, don't wear too many accessories or the person can look like a tiny Christmas tree.

For the Tall and Slender:

The tall and slender women must use at least three colors because differing colors will break up the line and give more proportioned look. Use horizontal lines and circle shirt and can be able to pull off accessories and different styles of bras and belt.

For Full Figured Women:

Full figured women use limited colors, can't wear the "skimpy" look, or anything overly tight. The bra has to fit to cover the person. She needs to wear the belt higher on the hips. It is better to use fabrics with vertical lines and long "V" shapes to cover the belly.

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The belly dancers shouldn't use a lot of make up. It is better to use a highlighter on the apples of the cheeks. Never use glitter white eye shadow under the brown. Instead use a flat white pencil. Avoid using a dark brown or black line in the lips. Instead use a color, 2-3 times darker than the lipstick so this will define the lips, but still appear natural.

“Take extra care when doing your eyes. The eyes are the window of the soul.”

(www.bellydancinggoytihadia.com/costume.html). For centuries women in the Middle East have been veiled, revealed only by their eyes. They want to show beautiful eyes with their make up. Blondes and redheads should use brown eye liners, so as not to give a hard look, while brunettes can wear brown-black to black colors.

MUSIC

A single nightclub show in the United States will include music from several nationalities: Turkish, Arabic, Greek, Armenian, Israeli, and others. American nightclub dancers will often choose songs with very simple musical arrangement. There are a number of U.S. based musicians (Oasis, Brother Of The Baladi, Sirocco, Jazayer, Ramal, Lamar, Jalaludin, and Desert Wind, to name a few) who have recorded music suitable for belly dancing.

The tribal fusion music includes both Arabic music and Turkish music in the dance, and maybe even some Greek, Armenian, or Jewish music. A tribal-style dancer will probably select songs with very simple musical arrangements based on traditional instruments, such as just an oud and a dumbek, or just a kanoun and a dumbek. She may use music based on folk songs, or songs from 50 years ago or more. Many tribal dancers will use karsilama or debke into their performances because its folk dance roots are very important to the tribal look. Drum solos are also an excellent element to include in a tribal dance.

An Egyptian-style dancer is likely to use only Arabic music. Egyptian music for raqs sharqi (the Egyptian name for belly dance) is generally entirely instrumental, including instrumental versions of popular songs from the past as well as newer material that was designed from the outset to be instrumental. Recently, American dancers performing Egyptian-style shows have been incorporating popular vocal music into their shows, such as that sung by Amr Diab, Warda, Ragab Alame, and Melhem Barakat.

(<http://www.shira.net/styles.htm#Music>)

~*~MORE ABOUT BELLY DANCING~*~

Belly Dancing is an art form with a rich cultural heritage, and was traditionally performed to prepare for marriage. Usually men were not allowed to be there. In belly dancing there isn't just one type of rhythm, there are lot of rhythms, like 4/4, 6/8, 9/8, and 12/8. Some Americans don't use cymbals because some Egyptians don't use too, so they think why do they have to use them too?

The zill is an instrument that the dancer uses today. It is the same one back to 200 B.C. The interesting objects used during the dance are: swords, snakes, large vessels, huge candelabras complete with flaming candles. Belly dancing with veils hadn't been documented before the 1900's but it is now quite popular throughout the world.

There are four different styles of belly dancing: folk, ethnic, historical, and authentic. Ethnic is Romany Gypsy belly dance. This style of dance comes from Turkey, Russian, Morocco, Spain etc. The Sacred dance comes from Ancient Middle East. It includes some rituals. Two of them are called zar and guedra. Zar is to drive away bad spirits. Guedra is for the good spirits.

Some moves are accompanied by a strong consistent drumbeat and possibly chanting. The movements are typically very repetitive. The combination of rhythmic repetitive sound and repetitive motion can lead to a hypnotic state.

The belly dance of today is a relative of an ancient dance. Belly dance was originated and performed by women in honor of the Great Mother.

Belly dancing is:

- Flashers of gold glitter and coins.
- Tassels that fly.
- Big dangly earrings.
- Bare feet slinging across wooden floors.
- Moving midriffs.
- Thin skirt swaying sensuously.
- Hips moving to haunting.
- Arabic music.
- Loose hair swaying softly.

AMERICAN BELLY DANCING STYLE



In the "traditional" American routine, the dancer wears finger cymbals and uses them in all the fast/medium songs. The dancer might also chose to use them during the slower songs, but often doesn't. It used to be, in the 1970's and 1980's, that a dancer who didn't use finger cymbals was effectively admitting she wasn't good enough with them to play them in public--so people wore them if they were trying to present themselves as a professional-quality dancer.

The fact that finger cymbals have NOT been widely used in Egypt recently has led to some American dancers deciding it's okay not to use zills themselves, even when doing American nightclub style. They just put on an Egyptian costume and select Egyptian club-style music for part of their dance, and say they don't need to wear zills because the Egyptians don't--even if their dance structure is classic American 7-part with some sections using non-Egyptian music.

The result is that recently an increasing number of American-style dancers don't wear finger cymbals, and then when they start teaching other belly dancers they don't bother to teach zill work. At this point, the majority of American-style dancers do still use cymbals, and most teachers still believe it is important to teach and perform finger cymbals.

Egyptian Raqs Sharqi Finger Cymbals

In Egypt, dancers who are skilled at playing finger cymbals usually do so. Those are not

skilled at playing finger cymbals will hire a musician to play them for her in the band--a recent development.

In the 1980's and 1990's, as American dancers began to visit Egypt or buy videos of Egyptian dancers, it became fashionable for American dancers who say they do "Egyptian style" to NOT wear finger cymbals, although individual artists will sometimes chose to do so.

Many American dancers who embrace Egyptian style will play finger cymbals, either because they enjoy doing so, or because the restaurants where they perform expect them.

(<http://www.shira.net/styles.htm>)

04-08-02

meriela

! What I Learned !

I learned in the history section of belly dancing that the belly dancing doesn't have a history because the only thing that they found was the drawing in the cave a long time ago. Belly dancing were knowing by American 100 years ago during Chicago Worlds Fair. Belly dancing means a dance of mind and body.

- ❖ The women should use a little bet of makeup.
- ❖ They dance belly dancing to help them when they are pregnant.
- ❖ 1893 was when the belly dancing knew by the section of Little Egypt.
- ❖ Belly dancing can be performed by man and woman.
- ❖ Zill is the name of the instrument that the belly dancer used
- ❖ 200 years ago they used the same instrument.
- ❖ And a lot more thing....

REFLECTION:

The research projects helped me a lot with my writing and reading. Because almost every day I had to take notes and put in my own words. I learned some couple of hard words and also helped me increased vocabulary in my sentences.

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ROBERTO

TOPIC DEVELOPER

10-21-01

Roberto

What?
 what kind of
 jobs are in
 a military career?
 what do I do to
 get a better?
 what is the
 biggest career?

Where?
 what is the
 best place to
 set a base?

Who?
 who is the highest
 person in the
 military?
 who is the most
 known military
 person today?

Why?
 why did

Topic:
 military

When?
 when are they
 used?
 when do they know
 to react?
 when do they
 know the enemy
 (ground)?

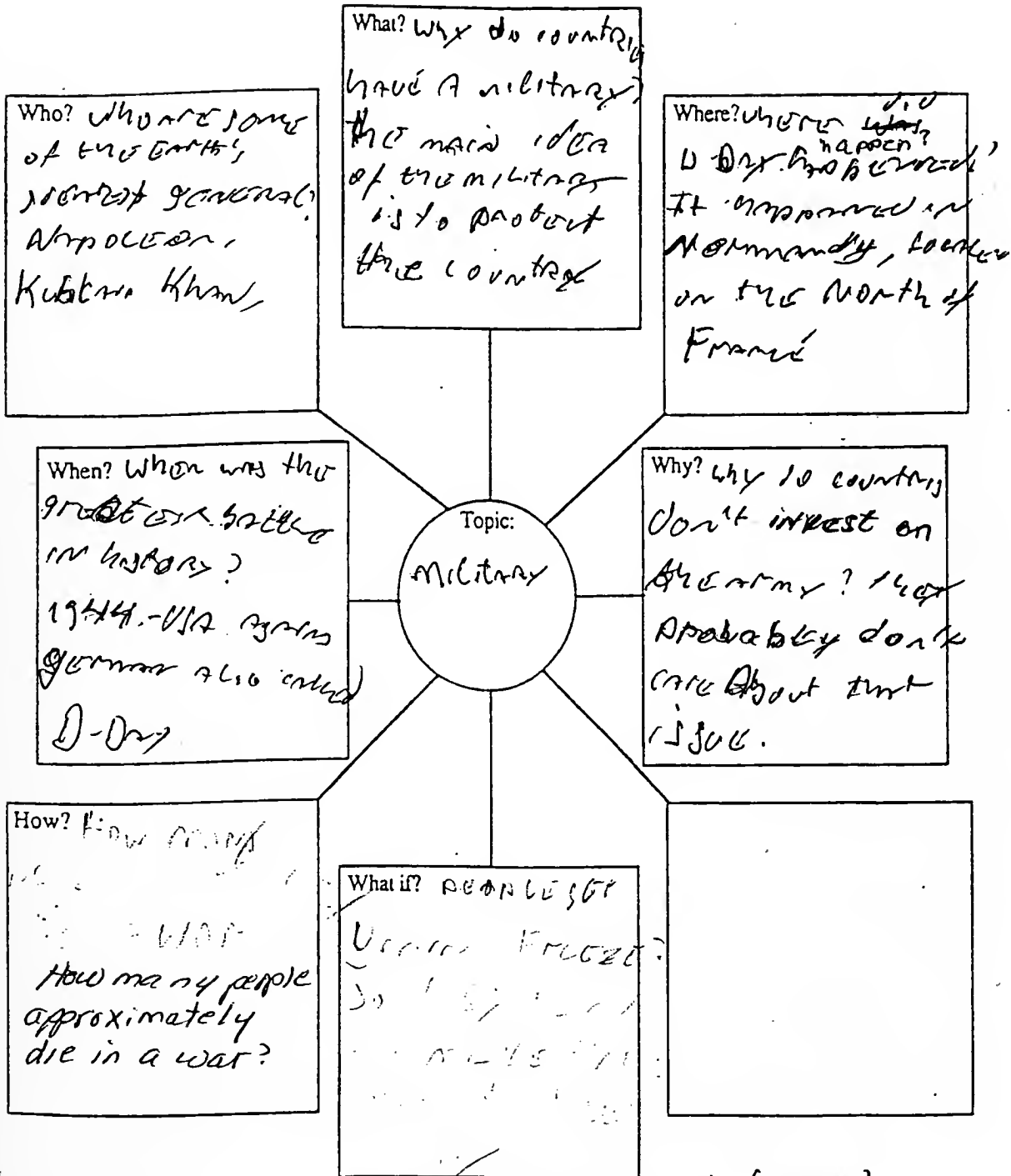
How? how do they
 (from Germany)
 how many people
 did it take?
 how do they
 know if they
 kill or just hurt
 or hostages or
 the enemy?

What if?
 they had the
 missions?

TOPIC DEVELOPER

1-2-02

January 2,



What if people get brain freeze?

more words

SPECIAL OPS

It is divided in elite units:

ARMY RANGERS

Specialize in attacking and seizing enemy air fields, but prepared for many kinds of missions like reconnaissance (tracking), ambushes and night operations.

GREEN BERETS

Army Special Forces trained for extended operations in extremely remote and hostile territory.

NAVY SEALs

Prepared for sea, air and land combat, therefore, the acronym said to be the best combat swimmers in the world.

Delta Force

So secret it's not officially identified by the pentagon. A counter terrorism strike force trained for close-quarters battle aboard airplanes, buses and trains.

USAR Special OPS

Trained for SEARCH-AND-RESCUE, EMERGENCY-MEDICINE on ground - based fire control missions

TACTICS

If you plan a fire fight, Rangers are better, they operate at company strength with about 200 men

cards used:

Topic - Readings?

11-30-01

Separate

Fighter Planes

The fighter Scourge

Even before the WWI start people were thinking of a way to shoot from an airplane. So one day people thought the best thing to do to fix a machine gun on the airplane so the pilot can shoot easily but only if pilot is allowed

Kamikaze Pilots

these are Japanese pilots that volunteered for kamikaze missions. They were used in October 1944 to attack allied's ships.

Look inside cross-section tanks

by Ian Kirksey - 1998 New York, NY

Mark I 1916

During WWI, the Central power started to put barbed wire to defend themselves so English engineers developed the first tanks. The 2 main guns were coupled in the

sponsoring. It had an eight-man crew, they had to endure bumpy rides & the cabin was too noisy and when the bullets hit the tank, it makes some splinters, they protected themselves with thick clothes.

A7V

German Tanks

When Germans saw Mark I they made their own tank. In 1917 they made the A7V, it was heavy armored and 18 men operated that. It had a commander, a driver, a mechanic, 2 men manning the machine gun, and a machine gunner. It didn't travel very well on uneven ground, when the engine overhauled, because of the weight, the tanks were out quickly.

Causes of WWI

1. ~~Copper~~ ~~war~~ ~~before~~ ~~the~~ ~~WWI~~
 start, the world had seen many
 wars and like the Franco-Prussian
 war with the victory of Germany
 over France and the Russo-Japanese
 war with the victory of Japan over
 Russia.

2. Both warlike great powers
 between empires and countries. The
 Franco-Prussian war made great transition
 between France and Germany. Bismarck,
 the prime minister of Germany, sought alliances
 with every one possible. First he made
 what is called the Dual Alliance, it
 is a treaty with Austria that stated
 that they would protect each other
 no matter what happens. Until 1882 when
 Italy joined them and made the Triple
 Alliance. After that, Bismarck made
 an alliance with Russia but ended
 when Bismarck resigned and Kaiser

took over Germany.

- 3 After Russia was freed from any treaty, France made an alliance with them since both feared this triple alliance.

The victory of Japan over Russia in the Russo-Japanese war made Japan a major power in the world which only had offshoots in W.W.I.

- 5 Other reasons would be the imperial ambitions of Britain, France, Germany, and Italy who competed for colonies all over the world. Nationalism, which meant that Europeans were loyal to their countries. Militarism. All major powers increased their military.

- 4 Britain did not want to sign any alliance of that nature. In 1900, Britain felt that they had an alliance, they didn't trust the

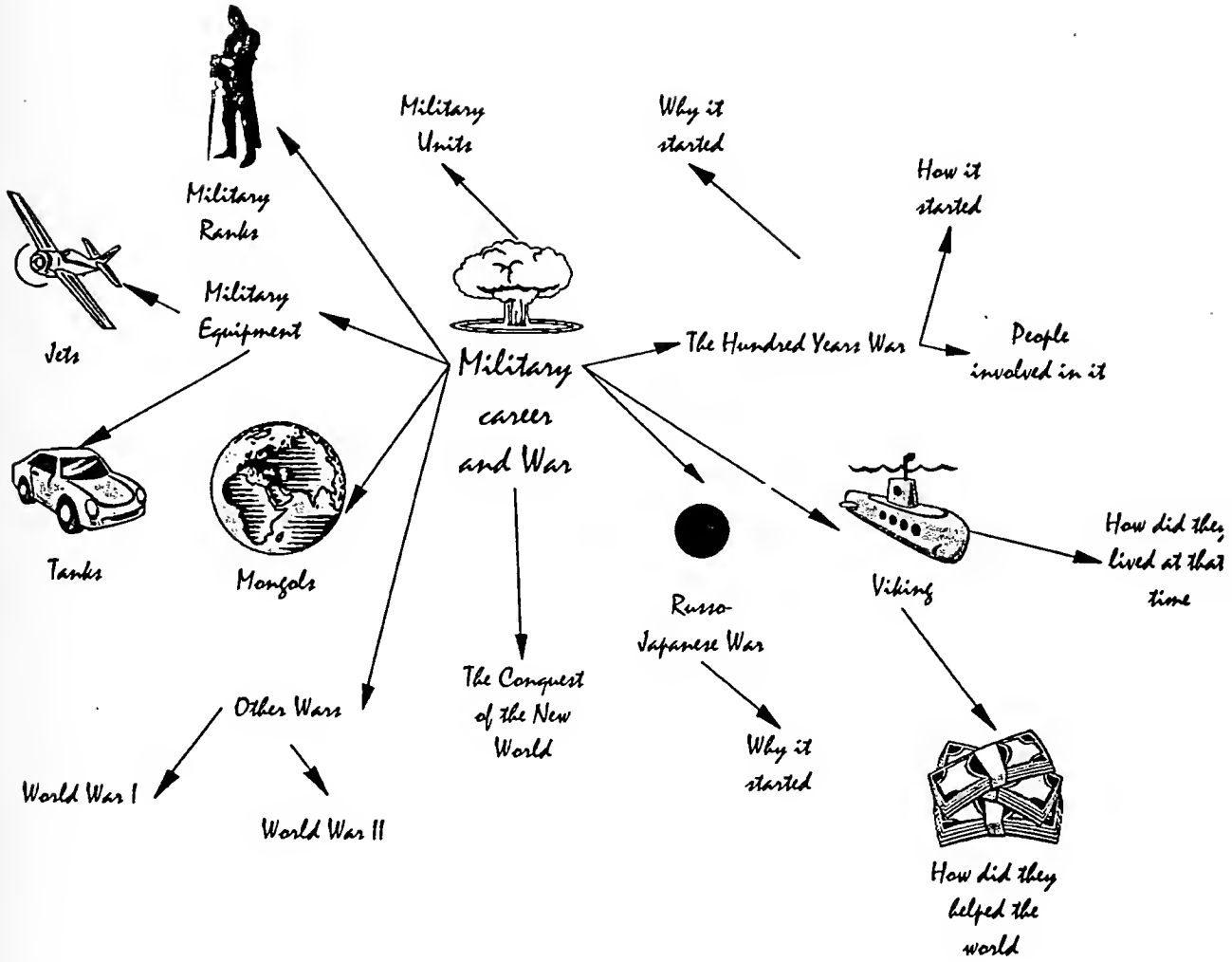
German & they made an alliance
 with the old ones, the French.
 The alliance was called Triple
alliance, but by 1907, Russia joined
 them and made their Triple Alliance
 Italy, except that it was alliance
 and was neutral to any sides.
 Germany and Austria then formed
 the Central Power & Russia pledged
 to help Serbia; Russia was also
 part of the Triple Alliance so
 Serbia was part of of the Triple Alliance
 later called the Allies. Central
 was divided into two groups,
 if you were in one of them,
 you were in big danger of your
 self that ~~was a matter of fact,~~
~~because if you were with both~~
~~the groups, you were in a~~
~~dangerous position.~~
~~The~~

4/17/02

Military career and War

Military career and War

- I. Military Units
- II. Military Ranks
- III. The Hundred Years War
 - A. How it started
 - B. Why it started
 - C. People involved in it
- IV. Viking
 - A. How did they lived at that time
 - B. How did they helped the world
- V. Military Equipment
 - A. Tanks
 - B. Jets
- VI. Russo-Japanese War
 - A. Why it started
- VII. The Conquest of the New World
- VIII. Mongols
- IX. Other Wars
 - A. World War I
 - B. World War II



Draft 1

“Behind Enemy Lines”

For a long time, people have been fascinated by many wars. What I like about war is that they can change over time, for example, at the beginning of a war, a country may be winning the battles, but the losses of the battles are so big that, after a while, the country starts to lose many battles because they need more funds or soldiers. I am also fascinated by the political consequences at the end of a war; for example, at the end of the Russo-Japanese war, Japan became a world power.

The purpose of this paper is to focus on the causes and consequences of bloody wars that changed the world. I will look at the hundred year's war, then the Mongol conquest of Asia and Europe, after that, I will study the Russo-Japanese war, and finally, World War I and World War II.

First, I will study the hundred year's war. The cause of this important war that decided the borders of two major countries on earth.

Secondly, I will look at the struggle of the Mongols to conquer almost all Asia and East Europe. I will study the way of life that they had, which helped them a lot. I will also look at the empire at the death of Genghis Khan and the empire of Kublai Khan.

Thirdly, I will look at a very important war for the Asian countries, the Russo-Japanese war. It was an easy war for Japan that helped many people, for example, the Japanese and the rebels in the Russian Empire.

Finally, I will focus on both W.W.I and W.W.II. I will study the causes of these wars that killed thousands of people. Than I will talk about the consequences of these wars.

03/28/02

Causes of W.W.I.

A few years before the W.W.I start, the world had seen many wars end; for example, the Franco-Prussian war with the victory of Germany over France and the Russo-Japanese war with the victory of Japan over Russia.

Both wars helped grow tensions between major Empires and Countries all over the world. The Franco-Prussian war had consequences such as the tensions Germany and France made all over Europe. Bismarck, the Prime Minister of Germany, sought to make alliances with everyone possible; first he created what is called the *Dual Alliance*; it is basically an alliance between Germany and the Austrian Empire that stated that they would protect each other at any cost. It lasted until 1882 when Italy joined them and established the *Triple Alliance*. After that, Bismarck made a treaty with the Russian Empire. Some time later Bismarck resigned under a lot of pressure and Kaiser took over Germany; Kaiser annulled the treaty with Russia and kept the alliance with Austria and Italy but Italy left the Triple Alliance after a while and decided to stay neutral to any sides. After Russia was freed from any alliance, France made an alliance with them since both feared Germany and Austria.

The victory of Japan over the Russian Empire in the Russo-Japanese War made Japan a world power on earth, which only had a big effect on the W.W.II; Japan, being a world power, wanted more colonies and territory to expand its economical and political borders.

03/28/02

Britain did not want to make any alliances if not needed; however, in 1900, Britain felt that they needed an alliance if they wanted to feel safer from any threat. They did not trust Germany so they made an alliance with their old rivals, The French. The alliance was later called Entente Cordiate and lasted 7 years because in 1907 Russia decided to join them and created the Triple Entente.

Other reasons for the beginning of the war could be the Imperialism at that time; Britain, France, Germany, Italy, and Russia competed for colonies all over the world. Nationalism, which means that European people were very loyal to their Countries. Militarism, all major power in Europe invested in their armies and technology.

Germany and Austria then formed the Central Power, the Ottoman Empire joined them after the war started. They were a powerful enemy who tried to maintain its empire together. Russia had pledged to protect its Slavs and Serbs friends; Russia was also part of the Triple Entente so indirectly Serbia was a part of the Triple Entente later called the Allies. Europe was divided in two major groups, which would result in the biggest war the world had ever seen; many people would die, few would survive.

03/28/02

World War I

In 1914, Serbia, a small country ⁱⁿ on the Eastern Europe, just below the Austro-Hungarian Empire, had its western and northern part under Austrian reign. The Serbs wanted to acquire those lands back from the Austrian but the ^AArchduke Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, refused to let it happen since other tribes would try to do the same and the Empire would end or it would be ^{to}small and ^{to}weak. Those reasons led Ferdinand to go to Sarajevo to try to calm things down before it ^{got}gets out of hand.

When Ferdinand was riding ⁱⁿhis car with his wife through the streets of Sarajevo, suddenly a young Serbian man sprang forward and fired two shots against Ferdinand and his wife. ^{The Archduke was killed!!} After that, the Count Leopold Von Berchtold, the Austrian foreign Minister, asked their allies, the German, for ~~an~~ ^{advice}advice. Kaiser gladly agreed to attack Serbia hoping that the conflict could be kept in the Balkans and not to spread all over Europe.

Then, ^{Count}Berchtold sent an ultimatum to the Serbs with some demands on July 23, 1914. The Serbian accepted all of the requests but ^{one}that request stated that they should allow Austrian soldiers into the cities to end the anti-Austrian propaganda in Serbia

Austria ^{declared}warned them but they refused so the Austrians ^{declared}declared war on them. The Russians felt they should help their Slav and Serb friends, but France and England did not want to engage in a war against Germany and Austria at the same time.

My opinion about the W.W.I. is that it was just an European war that needed support from all over the world to stand a chance against the Central ^{power}power. ^{It}It was also

03/28/02

the war that developed a new way of war, the "Trench Warfare", which is the kind of war that all sides get stuck ⁱ in trenches for a long time until someone is brave enough to attack the other trenches. This kind of warfare can kill many people not only by getting shot but also because of many diseases. Poisonous gas was the biggest killer!!

When ^x the German ^f attacked Belgium, they hoped to strike quickly and win the war over France easily and fast. But the Russians on the eastern borders aided the French by attacking them, forcing Kaiser and the Austrian ^s to send a big part of the army to the East Side.

A very important battle to stop the German advance was the Battle of the Marne. This very important battle was a deadly battle that pushed the Germans back to the Marne River. After this battle, both sides got stuck in the same place for more than 3 years until the aid of American troops that helped turn the tide against the Central Power's side.

The Russians had suffered huge losses amounting into millions of people dead, and factories and crops destroyed; plus they were facing another big problem. ^o Tsar Nicholas II was facing rebels supported by the Germans and later created and became the ruling party of Russia. Those reasons led Tsar Nicholas II to sign the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, which just made Russia officially out of the war.

After Russians ² defeat in the war, Kaiser sent all German troops ^o possible to the west to fight against the French. Austria was fighting Italy and other countries in the Balkans. ^T They had conquered Serbia in weeks so the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria were fighting at the far east of Europe. The Ottoman Empire had suffered a few attacks at its territory and they were losing many battles.

03/28/02

Even though the situation favored Germany, ¹they still wanted more allies. On 1917, the British discovered telegram sent from the German foreign minister, Arthur Zimmermann, to the German ambassador in Mexico; the message was to propose to Mexico to help ¹the Germans in a campaign against the US. In exchange, Germany would help them recover all the territory they had lost for the U.S. ^{That is when} Woodrow Wilson led the American army into war against the Central Power.

One by one, all nations of the Central Power gave up in that until Germany was left to fight all alone against many nations who had already proved that they would do whatever they could to stop them. But Germany surrendered on November 11, 1918 at 11:00 AM.

03/28/02

Consequences of the War

After the war, a major conference at Versailles was held between the nations involved in the war, except the defeated nations. They would decide the future of Europe after the war. Many things changed but basically Empires like the Austro-Hungarian Empire, The German Empire, and the Russian Empire broke up into smaller independent countries. Those countries were Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, and Finland. Germany had lost a big part of its territory and Poland divided them so they had territory that wasn't connected to them. Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, half of Poland, and Finland were parts of Russia but Russia kept most of their territory intact. The Austro-Hungarian Empire was divided in Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Austria, and Hungary

A League of Nations was created to prevent another war from happening. Wilson proposed it but the U.S. decided not to join them. Germany was prohibited to have an army or to buy or make a weapon. After many years, another deadlier war broke out in Europe; it killed ~~much~~ ^{many} more people and left many wounded. The league of nations failed to prevent another war from happening, the W.W.II.

President
Woodrow

Life in Genghis Khan's Mongolia

If anyone look at a world map, they will clearly see that Genghis Khan started the greatest empire ever built on earth, they are also known to have the toughest horde of all times. People may think that other civilizations like the Romans took 500 years to raise an Empire that is equal to half of the Mongol's Empire. I'd say that their way of living could explain why that happened.

They had good techniques, if they needed to live in the high temperatures of the Gobi Desert or the low temperatures of the Siberian Winter, they new how to survive. I like to think that they were nomads, they lived in many places and they moved when they wanted to; they had houses called Yurt, it is a kind of mobile house that was pushed by horses or cows. The whole family should know at least basic fighting skills and horse riding skills

They were divided in tribes, they weren't friendly with each other, they often fought each other until one of the tribes are defeated. Gheghis Khan

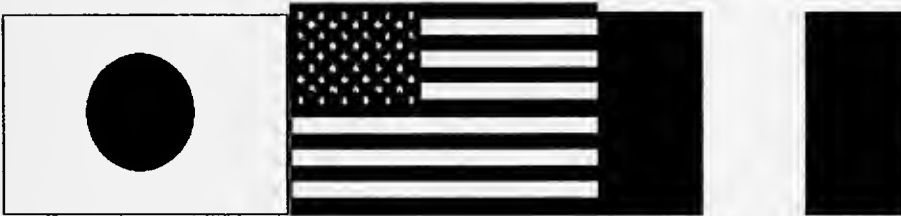
Dear Ricardo,
 You have done an excellent job of describing WWI. I'm wondering if you want to limit your paper to WWI + WWII because of time and the fact the mongols aren't related to WWI → WWII. Think about this - re-write your intro & follow my editing page by page. MS Beane ☺

Interview Questions

1. Which war did you go to?
2. When did you go?
3. What was it like?
4. Did you often ~~go~~ go to combat?
5. Have you ever been shot?
6. Did you have many friends there?
7. Where ~~was~~ was the place that you trained?
8. Define "war"?
9. Would you go again if you could?
10. What did you learn with that experience?

World Dominance World Dominance

a dream which never came true



"Still if you will not fight for the right when you can easily win without bloodshed, if you will not fight when your victory will be sure and not so costly, you may come to the moment when you will have to fight with all of the odds against you and only a precious chance for survival. There may be a worse case. You may have to fight when there is no chance of victory, because it is better to perish than to live as slaves."

(Winston Churchill)

Roberto
May 6, 2002
Research class
Ms. Bearse and Ms. Hamilton

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5/1/02

World Dominance

A Dream which never came true

For a long time, people have been fascinated by wars. What I like about war is that it can and they always change over time. For example, at the beginning of a war, a country may be winning the battles but the losses of these battles are so big that, after a while, the country starts to lose many battles because of funds or soldier's need. I am also fascinated by the political or economic consequences at the end of a war; for example, at the end of the Russo-Japanese War, Japan became a world power and it also gained Formosa (Taiwan) and another smaller island.

The purpose of this paper is to focus on the causes and consequences of bloody wars that changed the fate of the World. I will try to look at the two most known wars in history, World War I and World War II.

First, I will look at World War I. It is a war that killed thousands of people and it could have killed much more.

Secondly, I will look at one of the most famous war in History, World War II. This war is known for the merciless act of the Axis leaders. They killed millions of Jewish people and millions of soldiers in one single war

5/1/02

Causes of W.W.I.

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5/1/02

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5/1/02

My opinion about the W.W.I. is that it was just a European war that needed support from all over the world to stand a chance against the Central Power. It was also the war that developed a new way of war, the "Trench Warfare," which is the kind of war that all sides get stuck in trenches for a long time until someone is brave enough to attack the other trenches. This kind of warfare can kill many people not only by getting shot but also because of diseases caused by poisonous gas and the surrounding environment.

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A very important battle to stop the German advance was the Battle of the Marne. This very important battle was a deadly battle that pushed the Germans back to the Marne River. After this battle, both sides got stuck in the same place for more than 3 years until the aid of American troops that helped turn the tide against the Central Power's side.

The Russians had suffered huge losses amounting into millions of people dead, and factories and crops destroyed; plus they were facing another big problem. Tsar Nicholas II was facing rebels supported by the Germans and later created and became the ruling party of Russia. Those reasons led Tsar Nicholas II to sign the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, which just made Russia officially out of the war.

After Russian's retreat from the war, Kaiser sent all German troops possible to the west to fight against the French. Austria was fighting Italy and other countries in the Balkans. They had conquered Serbia in weeks so the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria were

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fighting at the Far East of Europe. The Ottoman Empire had suffered a few attacks at its territory and they were losing many battles.

Even though the situation favored Germany, they still wanted more allies. On 1917, the British discovered a telegram sent from the German foreign minister, Arthur Zimmermann, to the German ambassador in Mexico; the message was to propose to Mexico to help the Germans in a campaign against the US. In exchange, Germany would help them recover all the territory they had lost for the U.S in the Mexican-American War. That is when Woodrow Wilson led the American army into war against the Central Power.

One by one, all nations of the Central Power gave up in that until Germany was left to fight all alone against many nations who had already proved that they would do whatever they could to stop them. But Germany surrendered on November 11, 1918 at 11:00 AM.

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Consequences of the War

After the war, a major conference at Versailles was held between the nations involved in the war, except the defeated nations. They would decide the future of Europe after the war. Many things changed but basically Empires like the Austro-Hungarian Empire, The German Empire, and the Russian Empire broke up into smaller independent countries. Those countries were Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, and Finland. Germany had lost a big part of its territory and Poland divided them so they had territory that wasn't connected to them. Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, half of Poland, and Finland were parts of Russia but Russia kept most of their territory intact. The Austro-Hungarian Empire was divided in Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Austria, and Hungary

A League of Nations had been created to prevent another war from happening. President Woodrow Wilson proposed it but the U.S. decided not to join them. Germany was prohibited to have an army or to buy or make any kind of weapon. After many years, another deadlier war broke out in Europe; it killed many more people and left many wounded. The League of Nations failed to prevent another war from happening; W.W.II.

Causes of W.W.II

In almost all countries all over the world, a dictatorship once ruled the country, many people know about dictators, but they don't know when all this began. It all began in 1920's to 1930's. The world had seen many powerful dictators rise to power in European countries such as Germany with Adolph Hitler, Italy with Benito Mussolini, Russia with Lenin succeeded by Joseph Stalin, and Spain with Franco. Of all dictators involved in the W.W.II, Lenin was the first to appear. He rose to power after the civil war in Russia; he represented the Bolshevik (Red, that's why the Russian army was often called the RED ARMY) in the revolution against the anti-Bolshevik (White). After Lenin's death, Stalin and Trotsky fought to acquire the power; Stalin won and exiled Trotsky. Stalin started to make secret treaties with Germany. One of them was that Germany would send some officer to train the Red Army's troops; in exchange, Germany wanted mills and other building to develop newer warfare weapons such as battle tanks, aircraft, submarines, destroyers, guns, and the Atomic Bomb. If the League of Nations had found out about this treaty, Germany and Russia would have been heavily punished. All of the treaties ended when Adolph Hitler, a German officer, created the Nazi party and seized control of Germany and established a dictatorship on 1933. At the same time, Benito Mussolini, an Italian officer, took control of Italy.

Japan is one country that wanted to join the Nazi side because of three reasons. It needed more land if they wanted to expand their economy. Hitler promised a piece of the World after the war if they joined the Nazis. The last reason is that the Japanese were

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mad at the British and the French because they had promised a piece of China to Japan, which they never gave. Before the war started, Germany started to conquer countries below Germany, Austria and part of Czechoslovakia. England tried to stop them so they made a treaty with them called the Munich pact. They would let Germany have the conquered parts of Czechoslovakia but Hitler wouldn't try to get the rest of the country. Later Germany ignored the pact and fully conquered Czechoslovakia. Germany, Italy and Japan together formed what is known as the Axis; Britain, France, and other nations are known as the Allies. This is a war where every major country in the world was involved, to defend their interest, to gain more interests, or just to fight for the rights of innocent people to live. They fought as men, with pride and hope.

On August 1939, Germany made a very important treaty with the Soviet Union; it is called the Non-Aggression pact to secure the safety of Germany against the Soviets. The Germans were free to attack Poland now. Hitler wanted to kill all Jews on earth; but Poland didn't want to kill those innocent people so they threatened Hitler to try to scare him (even though they were Friends of the German). Both Britain and France had sworn to protect Poland, but Hitler just attacked Poland bringing France into the war.

W.W.II

When Hitler attacked Poland, it was a matter of weeks before it was fully conquered. With the Non-Aggression pact between Germany and the Soviet Union, Hitler started to conquer countries above Germany, Norway and Sweden; with fast attack, Hitler dominated Norway and Sweden. He was ready to attack France and all European countries that would even think about opposing the Nazi. Hitler conquered Rhineland in days; when Hitler attacked Belgium, Britain decided to enter the war because Belgium was a big friend of them. Switzerland and other small countries chose Neutrality in the war because they knew they would just waste the life of soldiers; later, those countries would lend money to Hitler because they were afraid of Hitler.

The Japanese attacked and conquered China's Manchuria, a Chinese province located on the northeast part of China, then they started to go down headed towards Beijing and Shanghai; they also attacked Malaya and Indonesia, islands below Asia.

Before the war started, Mussolini conquered Ethiopia, an independent African nation before the Italian attack. After the war began, Mussolini was afraid he wouldn't be able to keep up with Hitler so he entered the war on Hitler's side even though they were competing for a bigger power. Mussolini started by attacking Greece and some African Colonies, and later with the fall of France, it was a matter of time before the French colonies fell to the Italians. In the war against Greece, an Italian army was trapped in a valley surrounded by Greek troops; Hitler had sent troops to attack Moscow but when he heard about the trapped troops, he ordered them to save them. So because of those troops

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Hitler had to attack the Russians in the winter. That is one of the reasons Hitler did not win the war against the Soviet.

When France surrendered, some loyal people started to make militias to fight the Nazi but that militia wasn't strong enough to stop the German. When Hitler conquered Europe's mainland, he still wanted more power but to do so he had to defeat the British as soon as possible. He made a great blunder thinking that it would be easy to defeat them because the British were left alone to fight the Nazi. He first started to attack London by air. London suffered heavy losses because of German bombers constantly dropping bombs over the city but the British Air Force outsmarted them and defeated them at the *Battle of England*, which was the first big battle that the German lost.

Hitler also attacked the Soviet Union on June 1941 breaking their treaty of non-aggression made on 1939. He started attacking from the north by Finland and then from the west; the Italian joined them making the Nazi stronger than ever; Hitler had reached Leningrad (formerly St. Petersburg) on the north, Moscow on the west and Stalingrad (formerly Volgograd). The Soviets were losing badly, suffering the heaviest losses of the war because Stalin wasn't expecting a betrayal like that but they held the sieges firmly, struggling to defeat the Nazi. The Soviet army surrounded a German army at Stalingrad. A General, who was responsible for the battle of Stalingrad, told Hitler that the battle couldn't be won but Hitler was blind because of ambition and told them to hold back and when the Soviet won the battle on 1943. Hitler had sacrificed about 250,000 soldiers that were sent to camps. After the battle of Stalingrad, the Soviets started to win all battles against the Nazis and keep a steady advance against the Nazi; the Battle of Stalingrad was the major turning point of the war between the Soviet Union and the Nazi.

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The Japanese and the Nazi were afraid that the Americans could join the Allies in the war against them; they would be a big enemy that they knew they would have to use every bit of their power and resources to hardly defeat. They knew that they would have to strike the U.S. in a way that they would gain a lot more chance against the Allies and the U.S. On December 7, 1941, the Japanese Generals had planned a smart attack challenging even their power. The mission was to strike the naval base of Pearl Harbor located on the island of Hawaii; they would have to destroy the naval base including all the naval ships and the oil that was kept near the base. They used hundreds of airplanes and about four big carriers to complete the mission. The attack was successful, they destroyed the American fleet that was there and killed more than 2,000 that were hiding inside the warship USS-Arizona however they were not able to blow up the oil that was nearby the base. This attack had good and bad consequences for the Axis; a good thing was that the U.S. naval ships and other equipment were destroyed reducing the American naval power to almost nothing; a bad thing was that by attacking Pearl Harbor, the Japanese dragged the Americans into war against them.

While Roosevelt sent many troops to protect England from any Nazi attack. He sent troops to North Africa to fight the Italians. Many nations on earth that opposed the Nazi sent troops to fight them back

The war had many turning points but none of them could be compared to the attack of the Americans against the Nazis on Normandy. This event is known to be the largest amphibious invasion in history. It is also called D-Day and it happened on June 6, 1944. This was a well-planned attack that involved American, British, and Canadian troops. The location of the attack is known as Normandy; Normandy is located in the

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north of France and it had fallen for the Nazi since 1941. Thousands of troops died while they were attacking and many died while they were still being dropped off the airplanes but their death allowed more than 100,000 troops to enter Europe's mainland.

The Japanese were also suffering in the Pacific. They had lost a big part of their territory for the American's Naval ships and by then the Americans had recovered what they had lost on Pearl Harbor.

After D-Day, the German did not make any more gains; they were losing many battles very fast. The Soviets had entered Germany already and the Japanese were in a very bad situation. Hitler started to recognize that he could not win the war anymore. Many German officers were not obeying. He gave orders to kill all Jews in all camps under his control but all of the Officers in charge of doing that refused to do so. Another General even tried to make a treaty with the Americans and let them cross the only bridge that could get someone inside Berlin on the West Side. When Hitler found out about this, he ordered him to be arrested but even those German officers refused.

Mussolini was captured by the Italians who opposed him and he was sent to prison but Hitler rescued him and put him in charge of the rest of the Italian army loyal to him. Mussolini was just a puppet on Hitler's hands after he went to prison. In 1945, the Italians recaptured Mussolini and executed him on the same day; his body was hung upside-down and civilians threw many rocks at his dead body. Hitler afraid that the Germans would do the same to him, killed himself on his Underground Shelter in Berlin. Then his SS (execution squadron) troops took his body and burned it outside in a hole. When the Soviet soldiers got inside Berlin, they started to look for Hitler and his underground shelter that everyone knew about but no one could tell where it was. When

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Soviet soldiers found the Shelter, they found a letter on a table that told whoever read it where Hitler's body was located; when they found the remains of Hitler, they decided not to tell the rest of the world and people consider that moment the beginning of the Cold War. They only told the Americans about Hitler in 1959.

Germany surrendered on May 7, 1945. This day is also called VE Day, which means Victory on Europe. But Japan did not surrender knowing that they could never turn the war, they just kept fighting with little hope of winning the war. Back in 1942, Roosevelt had started the Manhattan Project, which is a project that had the only goal of building an Atomic Bomb; by 1945 the bomb had already been made and Truman decided to use it against the Japanese. On August 6, 1945 the B-29 bomber Enola Gay dropped an A-bomb on Hiroshima; this A-bomb called was Little Boy, it had the power of 20,000 pounds of dynamite and destroyed 5 square mile of the city and killed about 70,000 people. The A-bomb wasn't enough to make the Japanese give up so another bomb was dropped on Nagasaki on August 9, 1945 killing 40,000 people. The Soviet decided to help the Americans win the war so they entered the war on August 14, 1945; on the same day the Japanese surrendered but they said that Stalin's decision to fight against them did not affect their decision, that day is known as VP day.

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Consequences of the war

World War II had many consequences, some of them are bad and some of them are good. Europe was left in ruins including England because of the heavy attacks of Nazi bombers. Germany was divided into 4 parts that was controlled by U.S.A, England, France, and Soviet Union; Soviet Union controlled all of the eastern Germany also called East Germany, the part controlled by France, England, and U.S.A was called West Germany. Berlin was divided in four parts controlled by U.S.A, England, France, and Soviet Union. United States and Soviet Union were the only two major countries that survived the war and recovered very fast, because of that they were also known as superpowers. Because of them, Europe was divided into two parts, West and East Europe; all countries on the west of Berlin were part of West Europe, all on the other side was part of East Europe and by the time the Soviet Union controlled all of that. Japan was also left in ruins, U.S.A. stabilized a kind of limited monarchy, and they also made a new constitution for Japan but many Japanese were happy that the war had ended.

Many years after the war, all of West Europe had recovered in a fast way, even West Germany had recovered from the consequences of the war. United States is the most important country that helped all countries recover from the war but those countries under a Soviet regime were as lucky, East Europe didn't recovered as fast as the other European countries because of the soviets. Japan is a country that most people believe they made what is called an *economic miracle*. They have recovered in a rate never seen

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before, they started to give jobs to the people and the people started to believe in the country; Japan's economy was based on selling new equipment to other countries including the U.S.

Many years after the war, many things changed, but it left a scar far greater than any ever left on earth but people stood up again and made themselves important people and they live their lives happily ever-after for some but W.W.II led to another great conflict that divided the world, the Cold War.

Conclusions

- I learned that in the beginning of the century most of the places in the world were part of a specific Empire.
- I learned that Europe was divided into many Empires that, together, they had the power to rule the world but that never happened.
- I learned that Europe was divided into two major groups, the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance.
- I learned that W.W.I developed a new way of fighting called Trench Warfare, which is basically the type of warfare where two sides keep fighting in the same places for a long time.
- I learned that after the W.W.I many dictators started to rise and formed very powerful empires.
- I learned that Hitler created a new way of fighting called Blitzkrieg basically that was the first type of warfare that is similar to today's type of fighting.
- I learned that Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor led America to war against the Axis.
- I learned that W.W.II is the bloodiest war that ever happened in world history, because millions of people died and many more suffered a lifetime injury.

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GILDA

TOPIC DEVELOPER

Gilda

10-21-01

Topic:
teen pregnancy

Who?
Who is best person that can help a teen ~~preg~~ pregnant?

What?
What are some reasons that a teen ages get pregnant?
What are some ways to prevent pregnancy?

Where?
Where does it happen the most?
Where can you go to ~~get~~ have an abortion?

When?
When a girl start to interest in sex?

Why?
Why you should not discredment a pregnant girl?

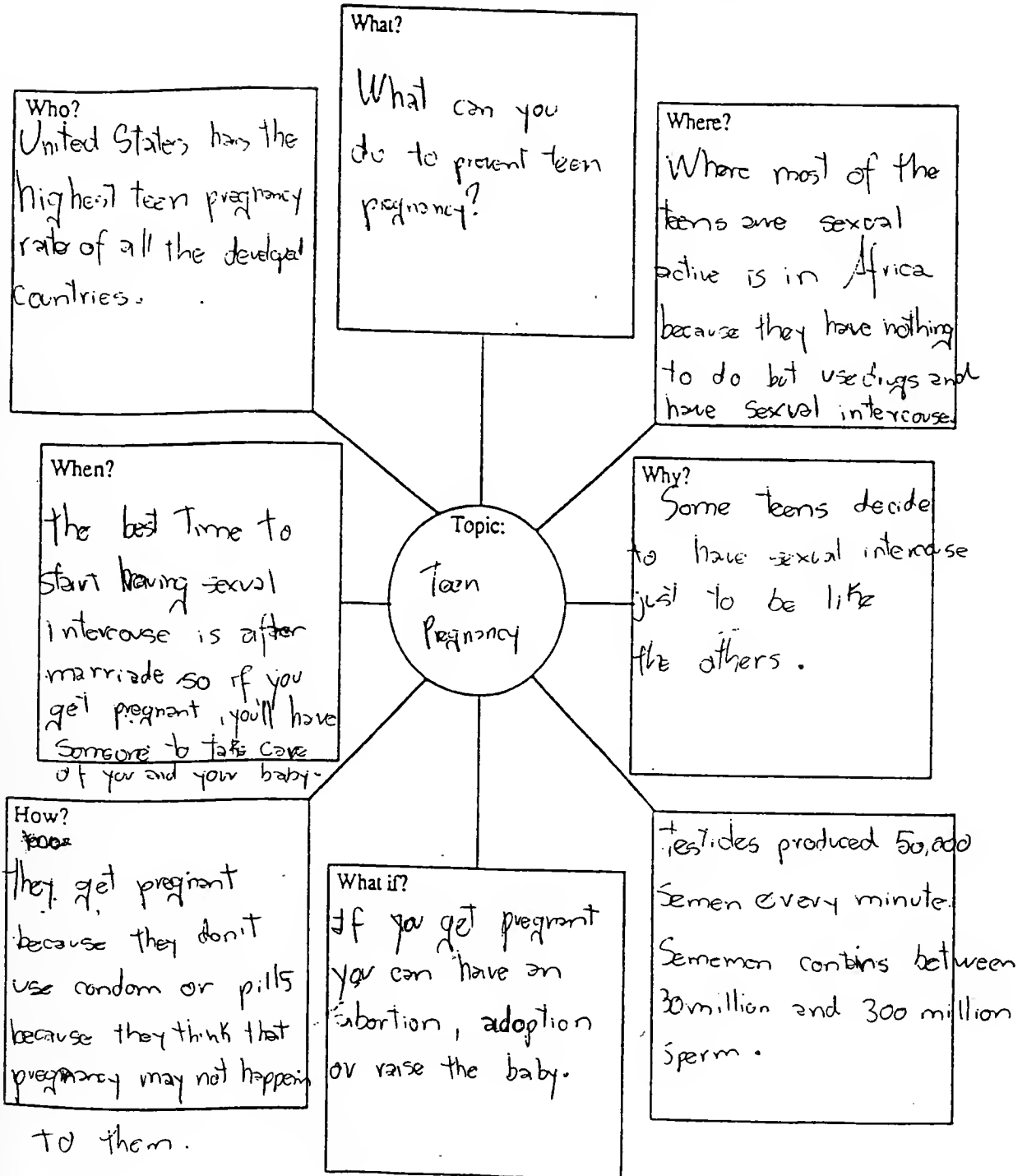
How?
How do you get pregnancy?
How many teen ages pregnant in ~~the~~ year?

What if?
What if you get pregnant?

What happens to a teen ages' baby?



1-02-02



Dear Diary, I'm pregnant

Interviews by Laurence Englander

Edited by Corinne Liberman Miller

Eve tells her story.

"I was fifteen when I gave the baby up."

- * This ~~are~~ some results that a teen pregnancy can cause. After months suffering you just give your child to someone that you don't know.

Sometimes ~~we~~ people decide to have an abortion, because they think that having a baby may change your life forever. That's true.

Abortion

- * Some mothers are very supportive and they help their daughters but some mothers ~~are~~ are not prepared and they can't help and they need help.

Reaction

- * It's hard to tell the mother that you are pregnant, at the moment she wouldn't believe because she may think you are too young or because you were like an angel and never would ~~do~~ have sex, and get ~~pregnant~~ pregnant.

Reaction

11-28-02

note Taking

Teen Fatherhood

Author = Eleanor H. Ayer

Approximately 7% of teen males have fathered children.

Something that both have to know is if you are old enough to have sex you are old enough to act with responsibility.

Some Statistics shows that in general, children raised without fathers encounter more emotional, social, educational, and health problems than those from two-parent families are more likely to live in poverty.

A boy or a teen father when they first found out that they were going to be a father, they probably felt a lot of different emotions.

Sometimes they get angry at the girl because she is pregnant, but it's not only her fault it's both fault.

The best thing you should do is tell the parents.

Abortion = is a way of getting out of the problem but think it's not a form of birth control, Abortion means choosing not to bring a child into the world or killing a baby.

Adoption

You may be under parent pressure to give up your baby but if you don't feel doing it don't do. You may want to have the baby back and it will be hard almost impossible.

11-30-02

Sample of Note-taking

Teenage Pregnancy

Author Paula Edelson

How does pregnancy happen?

~~Testes~~ Testis^s produced 50,000 sperm every minute. Once inside the body, the sperm travel toward the woman's egg. Sperm contains between 30 million and 300 million sperm but ~~some~~ it almost all the time one comes in contact with the egg. So the woman gets pregnant.

Making decisions about sex

Some ~~people~~ teenagers choose to have sexual intercourse earlier than others. Some people feel they are in love and want to show that love sexually. ~~But~~ Others are curious or adventurous. And some people don't think much about it until it happens.

Some girls choose to have sexual intercourse because if ~~she~~ doesn't ~~do~~ it he'll find someone else who does.

Sometimes what happens is that some friends put pressure saying that "it is good." "You are the only one who didn't do it yet" And other stuffs like that makes a teenager decide to have sexual intercourse even if they don't want to, just to be like the others.

Because of those reasons many teenagers are having sexual intercourse today.

Making decision about sex

note taking

11-28-21

Changing bodies changing lives

Ruth Bell

Expanded 3rd

When you are pregnant you may have lots of feelings, thoughts, and fantasies about a possible pregnancy. That is no feeling wrong or right and it's a ~~symptom~~ symptom.

Symptoms

When you want to have a pregnancy test you may call for information, you don't need to tell your name, and you ~~can~~ ^{ought} to ask if it is confidential and if it's available for teens.

As soon as you think you are pregnant take a test so you'll ^{have} enough time to think about what you want to do. ~~do~~ have an abortion or keep the pregnancy.

Test

When you are pregnant a special hormone called HCG is released into your urine, so to know ~~that~~ if you are pregnant you may take a urine test.

You can also ~~also~~ get pelvic exam. The doctor will know if you are pregnant or not by feeling and looking at

1-29-02

-Interviewing Questions-

- 1= What was your first reaction to become pregnant?
- 2= Who did tell first?
- 3= Did you consider abortion or adoption?
- 4= What was your boyfriend's reaction?
- 5= Do you thing get married was the best solution?
- 6= What ~~at the~~ made you feel that you were pregnant?
- 7= What is your name?
- 8= How old are you?
Describe your life right now?
- 9= How is life going now?
- 10= How are you feeling?
- 11= Do you feel ~~scary~~ ^{afraid} ~~in~~ ~~during~~ ~~the~~ ~~lab~~ about the baby delivery?

Feb 1, 2002

- Interviewing Questions -

- 1= What was your first reaction to become pregnant?
- 2= What was your boyfriend's reaction?
- 3= Who did you tell first about your pregnancy?
- 4= Did you consider abortion or adoption?
Why or why not?
- 5= Do you think getting married was the best solution?
- 6= Are you going back to school after the delivery? Why or why not?
- 7= Describe your life right now?
- 8= How are you feeling about your pregnancy?
- 9= Do you feel afraid about the baby delivery?
- 10= How did your life change?

Teen pregnancy 2-11-02

I. Abortion

A = Definition

B = Where can you have it.

C = Why people decide to have it.

D = Legal places to have it

E = ~~the~~ percentage

II. Symptoms

A = feelings

B = Changes in body

C = Types of symptoms

III. Tests

A = Kinds of tests

B = how do you take it

C = When you should take it

D = Costs

E = Where you find it

F = how does it work

IV. Eating

A = What to eat

B = weight going

C = food to avoid

} -D pg. 12

B = risks

C = how can you get it

D = how many teens are infected

E = how can you prevent

JX • Making decision about sex

A = Who you should talk with.

B = Why teen decide to have sex

C = Why yes, or why not.

Teen - Pregnancy 2-26-02

The purpose of this paper is to examine the issues surrounding teen pregnancy. I will look at nine various topics ranging from peer pressure to ~~parents~~ ^{parenting} responsibility.

First I'll talk about making decisions. In this topic I'll talk about who you should talk to, ~~also~~ why teens decide to have sex so early. In addition I'll talk about prevention and sexual diseases.

Secondly I'll talk about reactions, boyfriends, parents and mothers reaction. I'll also look out on some teen history that decide to have an abortion. ~~Other~~ In addition I'll talk about the fathers and their responsibility.

Thirdly I'll talk about symptoms. The kinds of symptoms and how you take a pregnancy tests and how you have to eat.

How Does Teen Pregnancy Effect The Community ?

First Draft

Did you know that 48% of teens around the age of 18 get pregnant each year? What are some reasons? Do they want it?

What can we do about it?

Teen pregnancy is ^{a problem} ~~an effect~~ that ^{affects} ~~makes~~ many people no matter if they are adults or teens. ^{They} feel sad and worried, because when it happens many bad effects come after. If a teen that is in high school gets pregnant, her future will probably be financially poor. She would have to stop going to school, wouldn't have the opportunity to go to college, so this girl will never be independent which is not good.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the issues surrounding teen pregnancy. I will look at nine various topics ranging from peer pressure to parenting responsibility.

First, I'll talk about making decisions. In this topic, I'll look at who you should talk to, and also why teens decide to have sex so early. In addition, I'll talk about prevention and sexual diseases.

Secondly, I'll talk about reactions, boyfriend's, parent's, and the girl's reactions. I'll also look at some teen's history about decisions to have an abortion or have the baby. In addition, I'll talk about the fathers' rights and responsibilities.

Thirdly, I'll talk about the symptoms of pregnancy, the kinds of symptoms and how you take a pregnancy test.

The last thing I'll talk about is how you have to eat and raise the baby.

March 28, 2002

Making Decisions About Sex Making Decisions About Sex

Some teenagers choose to have sexual intercourse earlier than others. Some people feel they are in love and want to show that love sexually. Others are curious or adventurous. And some people don't think much about it until it happens.

Some girls choose to have sexual intercourse with boyfriends because if he does not do it, he'll find someone else who does. Sometimes what happens is that some friends put pressure saying that it is good "You are the only one who didn't do it yet"? Because of those reasons many teenagers are having sexual intercourse today.

Birth Birth

In the United States, there are about 1 million teenagers that become pregnant each year.

The most percentage of girls who will give birth by age

eighteen: BLACK _____ 25%

HISPANIC _____ 15%

WHITE _____ 5%

where did you get these
statistics?? 1

, March 28, 2002

In Mississippi and other rural areas, its normal to give birth when you are teen, because almost everybody does it. A teen baby is more likely to have birth defects. They also have a greater chance of getting infections after birth.

Prevention Prevention

There are many kinds of methods to prevent pregnancy. But not everybody gets use^(d) to it. Some people just don't feel like using it and those people are in the risk of getting pregnant or^{having} a disease.

Some methods only prevent pregnancy not diseases and some methods prevent only diseases^(s) not pregnancy. ^{HERE} These are some methods that some people use and some times it flunks[!]

Condoms: sheaths made out of a type of plastic called latex. They fit snugly over the penis so when an orgasm, or climax, occurs, the condom catches and confines the semen that is ejaculated from the penis. ^(s) This means that no semen enters the women's vagina, which protects the women from and pregnancy. If you use it correctly with spermicidal gel it protects pregnancy 97% of the time.

, March 28, 2002

But sometimes a condom can leak or break allowing semen to enter the vagina.

The best thing is to use a condom with spermicidal gel so if the condoms break the spermicidal gel kills the sperm. But many women are allergic to it.

Condoms not only protect pregnancy but also protect you from diseases.

Some people conclude not to use condom or pills against pregnancy but they choose to pull out before orgasm. This is a way that people think they prevent pregnancy, but it is not.

Some people make a calendar and don't have sexual intercourse ^{on} certain days. But it doesn't work because not all teenagers are regular with their period, ^{there} that is no right or wrong day that a teen girl can ovulate.

The chart below that I found on Choosing Sexual Abstinence, The Rosen Publishing Group, Inc 1997, shows the chance of pregnancy using each kind of contraception.

METHOD _____ CHANCE OF
PREGNANCY

move this to next page →

, March 28, 2002

Abstinence _____ 0%
 Oral contraceptives _____ 0.1% ____ 0.5%
 IUD _____ 0.1% ____ 1.5%
 Male condom _____ 3%
 Withdrawal _____ 4%
 Female condom _____ 5%
 Diaphragm _____ 6%
 Rhythm _____ 9%

Sexual Diseases Sexual Diseases

As many things in life, sexual intercourse can be a lot of fun and it can also have consequences that are not so much fun. Some consequences are pregnancy, but there are others like STD's: Sexual Transmitted Diseases. These are some sexual diseases: syphilis, gonorrhea, herpes, or chlamydia and HIV. Some of these diseases can lead to death.

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Reactions Reactions

The part that many teens think is very hard is to tell the parents that ~~you~~^{they} are pregnant. At the moment they wouldn't believe because they may think that the teen is too young or because the teen ~~were~~^{was} such an angel and never would have sex, and get pregnant.

Some mothers are very supportive and they help their daughters but some mothers are not prepared and they can't help but they need help.

When you are too young to get pregnant you feel like your life is over. You can't tell anybody because they might think bad things about you. So you feel alone, feel like everyone hates you.

Abortion Abortion

According to the book, Smart Sex, by Jessica Vitkus and Marjorie Ingall (1998) abortion is the expulsion of a fetus from the uterus before it is sufficiently developed to survive outside of the uterus, resulting ~~the~~^{with} the end of a pregnancy. Abortion is a way out of the problem but it's not a form of birth control. Sometimes people decide

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to have an abortion, because they think that having a baby may change your life forever.

Most teenagers know that abortion is legal. But they don't know that the majority of states now have what's called either a parental consent ^{law} or a parental notice law.

Nobody believes in abortion. Nobody believes that women should sometimes be made to have abortions. But nobody believes that a woman should have a baby that they don't want.

Fathers Fathers

Some statistics shows that, in general, children raised without fathers encounter more emotional, social, educational and health problems than those from two-parent families do. They are more likely to live in poverty.

Boy or teen fathers when they first find out that they are going to be a father, probably feel a lot of different emotions.

Sometimes they get angry with the girl because she is pregnant, but it's not only her fault, it's both of their faults.

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The father has the right to name their kids if the mother lets him. The mother has the right to raise the baby with the father or alone.

The father also has to pay the mother the money he needs too. Having a baby is not only kissing, and saying good things but also paying and caring for the baby with what the baby needs.

Symptoms Symptoms

When you are pregnant you may have lots of feeling, thoughts, and fantasies about a possible pregnancy. There is no feeling wrong or right and it's a symptom.

Some changes that happen when you are pregnant are:

**Breast → it's more sensitive. They get bigger and bigger every day.*

**Peeing → Pregnant women have the need to urinate a lot. You might get up to urinate two or three times at night.*

**Exhaustion → A pregnant women feels very tired, because ^{she doesn't} ~~they don't~~ sleep normal at night so they sleep a lot during the day.*

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*Crampiness → Imaginary menstrual cramps can be another sign of pregnancy. You might notice some bleeding that you might think it's period but it's not.

*Dizziness → Getting out of bed too quickly ^{can} ~~could~~ give a pregnant woman tunnel vision and make them see stars. When tying shoes ^{she} ~~you~~ might see everything dark.

*Nausea → They eat a lot and sometimes they eat foods that are not very good for them so they vomit. ^{there} That is no right reason of why it happens but many believe that it happens because during a pregnancy the body changes so the women ^a is more sensitive.

*Sensitivity to odors → For a lot of women the very first sign is that the world begins to smell strange. Common aromas seem to get ^{more} powerful ^{things} like perfumes will make you feel sick.

*No period → You might think that not getting your period is a pretty reliable indication that ^{you are pregnant} there is a bun in your oven, but that is not a first sign, because many women ~~does~~ not have regular periods. ^s And some women ~~does~~ not notice ^{the} the day that they are supposed to have.

March 28, 2002

Tests Tests

As soon as you think you are pregnant take a test so you'll have enough time to think about what you want to do, have an abortion or keep the pregnancy.

When you are pregnant a special hormone called HCG is released into your urine which indicates whether or not you are pregnant.

You can also get ^a pelvic exam. The doctor will know if you are pregnant or not by feeling and looking at your uterus. They can also tell about how far you are pregnant.

If you are pregnant, your cervix, which is usually pink or red, will look bluish.

The pregnancy test might cost from \$7 to \$20 and you can find ^{it} at any pharmacy.

Risks Risks

Teenage mothers have a higher chance of anemia. Babies are more likely to be born premature. Premature babies are born earlier than the full nine months. These babies are more likely to have birth defects and suffer from low birth weight. These children can also

, March 28, 2002

have the possibility of having mental retardation, brain damage, and damage at birth. The younger the mother, the greater the risk of complications for both the mother and her child.

Some women become depressed and women who become suicidal because they are so sad that they can't even think of what to do when they are in a situation like this.

Eating Eating

It is important for pregnant women to stay healthy by eating right. Not only will they feel better, but also their babies will be healthier. The growing fetus gets its nutrients directly from the mother. Pregnancy is not the time to go on ^adiet. In fact, pregnant women should expect to gain some weight. The appropriate amount of weight gain is usually about twenty-five pounds, depending on the mother's needs.

The key is to increase your food eating in a nutritious, healthy way. Select more food from milk and dairy groups of extra calcium, and be sure to get lots of protein from meats, poultry, fish, eggs, and nuts. Plenty of fresh fruit and vegetables will provide essential

March 28, 2002

vitamins. Six to eight glasses of water a day is ideal. Avoid fast food, snack foods, and candy which are high in fat, sugar, and cholesterol and relatively low in nutrients.

Getting Ready for A New Born Getting Ready for A New Born

Once you choose to raise the baby, you will have many things to prepare. Your baby will need a crib to sleep in for the first few years. The crib will need sheets, blankets, and liner.

You'll also need baby supplies such as soaps, creams, powders, lotions, nipples, bottles and diapers.

You will also have to choose how you want to feed your baby. There are basically two choices: breast-feeding and bottle-feeding.

The other (stuff) you'll need you will know after the baby is born.

??

Teen Pregnancy

Gilda
May 6, 2002
Research Class
Ms. Bearse and Ms Hamilton

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How Does Teen Pregnancy Affect The Community?

Did you know that 48% of teens around the age of 18 get pregnant each year? What are some reasons? Do they want it? What can we do about it?

Teen pregnancy is a problem that affects many people no matter if they are adults or teens. They feel sad and worried, because when it happens many bad effects come after. If a teen that is in high school gets pregnant, her future will probably be financially poor. She would have to stop going to school, wouldn't have the opportunity to go to college, so this girl will never be independent which is not good.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the issues surrounding teen pregnancy. I will look at nine various topics ranging from peer pressure to parenting responsibility.

First, I'll talk about making decisions. In this topic, I'll look at who you should talk to, and also why teens decide to have sex so early. In addition, I'll talk about prevention and sexual diseases.

Secondly, I'll talk about reactions, boyfriend's, parent's, and the girl's reactions. I'll also look at some teen's history about decisions to have an abortion or have the baby. In addition, I'll talk about the fathers' rights and responsibilities.

Thirdly, I'll talk about the symptoms of pregnancy, the kinds of symptoms and how you take a pregnancy test.

The last thing I'll talk about is how you have to eat and raise the baby.

April 22, 2002

Making Decisions About Sex

Some teenagers choose to have sexual intercourse earlier than others. Some people feel they are in love and want to show that love sexually. Others are curious or adventurous. And some people don't think much about it until it happens.

Some girls choose to have sexual intercourse with boyfriends because if he does not do it, he'll find someone else who does. Sometimes what happens is that some friends put pressure saying that it is good 'You are the only one who didn't do it yet'? Because of those reasons many teenagers are having sexual intercourse today.

Birth Birth

In the United States, there are about 1 million teenagers that become pregnant each year.

The chart below found on Teen Pregnancy by Judy Berlfein, Lucent Books, San Diego, shows the percentage of teen pregnancy.

April 22,2002

*The most percentage of girls who will give birth by age
eighteen: BLACK _____ 25%*

HISPANIC _____ 15%

WHITE _____ 5%

*In Mississippi and other rural areas, its normal to give birth
when you are teen, because almost everybody does it.*

Reproduction Prevention

*There are many kinds of methods to prevent pregnancy. But
not everybody gets used to it. Some people just don't feel like using it
and those people are in the risk of getting pregnant or having a
disease.*

*Some methods only prevent pregnancy, not diseases, and
some methods prevent only diseases, not pregnancy. Those are
some methods that some people use and some times it flunks:*

Condoms: sheaths made out of a type of plastic called latex.

*They fit snugly over the penis so when an orgasm, or climax,
occurs, the condom catches and confines the semen that is
ejaculated from the penis. This means that no semen enters the*

April 22, 2002

women's vagina, which protects the women from and pregnancy. If you use it correctly with spermicidal gel it protects pregnancy 97% of the time.

But sometimes a condom can leak or break allowing semen to enter the vagina.

The best thing is to use a condom with spermicidal gel so if the condoms break the spermicidal gel kills the sperm. But many women are allergic to it.

Condoms not only protect pregnancy but also protect you from diseases.

Some people conclude not to use condom or pills against pregnancy but they choose to pull out before orgasm. This is a way that people think they prevent pregnancy, but it is not.

Some people make a calendar and don't have sexual intercourse on certain days. But it doesn't work because not all teenagers are regular with their period. There is no right or wrong day that a teen girl can ovulate. The chart below that I found on Choosing Sexual Abstinence, The Rosen Publishing Group, Inc 1997, shows the chance of pregnancy using each kind of contraception.

,pril 22,2002

| METHOD | CHANCE OF PREGNANCY |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| <i>Abstinence</i> | 0% |
| <i>Oral contraceptives</i> | 0.1% — 0.5% |
| <i>IUD</i> | 0.1% — 1.5% |
| <i>Male condom</i> | 3% |
| <i>Withdrawal</i> | 4% |
| <i>Female condom</i> | 5% |
| <i>Diaphragm</i> | 6% |
| <i>Rhythm</i> | 9% |

Sexual Diseases

As many things in life, sexual intercourse can be a lot of fun and it can also have consequences that are not so much fun. Some consequences are pregnancy, but there are others like STD's: Sexual Transmitted Diseases. These are some sexual diseases: syphilis, gonorrhea, herpes, or chlamydia and HIV. Some of these diseases can lead to death.

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Reactions

The part that many teens think is very hard is to tell the parents that they are pregnant. At the moment they wouldn't believe because they may think that the teen is too young or because the teen was such an angel and never would have sex, and get pregnant.

Some mothers are very supportive and they help their daughters but some mothers are not prepared and they can't help but they need help.

When you are too young to get pregnant you feel like your life is over. You can't tell anybody because they might think bad things about you. So you feel alone, feel like everyone hates you.

Abortion

According to the book, Smart Sex, by Jessica Vitkus and Marjorie Ingall (1998) abortion is the expulsion of a fetus from the uterus before it is sufficiently developed to survive outside of the uterus, resulting with the end of a pregnancy.

Abortion is a way out of the problem but it's not a form of birth control. Sometimes people decide to have an abortion, because they think that having a baby may change your life forever.

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Most teenagers know that abortion is legal. But they don't know that the majority of states now have what's called either a parental consent law or a parental notice law.

Nobody believes in abortion. Nobody believes that women should sometimes be made to have abortions. But nobody believes that a woman should have a baby that they don't want.

*Fathers
Fathers*

Some statistics shows that, in general, children raised without fathers encounter more emotional, social, educational and health problems than those from two-parent families do. They are more likely to live in poverty.

Boy or teen fathers when they first find out that they are going to be a father, probably feel a lot of different emotions.

Sometimes they get angry with the girl because she is pregnant, but it's not only her fault, it's both of their faults.

The father has the right to name their kids if the mother lets him. The mother has the right to raise the baby with the father or alone.

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The father also has to pay the mother the money he needs too. Having a baby is not only kissing, and saying good things but also paying and caring for the baby with what the baby needs.

Symptoms *Symptoms*

When you are pregnant you may have lots of feeling, thoughts, and fantasies about a possible pregnancy. There is no feeling wrong or right and it's a symptom.

Some changes that happen when you are pregnant are:

- *Breast → it's more sensitive. They get bigger and bigger every day.*
- *Peeing → Pregnant women have the need to urinate a lot. You might get up to urinate two or three times at night.*
- *Exhaustion → A pregnant women feels very tired, because she doesn't sleep normally at night so they sleep a lot during the day.*
- *Crampiness → Imaginary menstrual cramps can be another sign of pregnancy. You might notice some bleeding that you might think it's period but it's not.*
- *Dizziness → Getting out of bed too quickly can give a pregnant woman tunnel vision and make them see stars. When tying shoes she might see everything dark.*

April 22,2002

**Nausea → They eat a lot and sometimes they eat foods that are not very good for them so they vomit. There is no right reason of why it happens but many believe that it happens because during a pregnancy the body changes so a woman is more sensitive.*

**Sensitivity to odors → For a lot of women the very first sign is that the world begins to smell strange. Common aromas seem to get more powerful or things like perfumes will make you feel sick.*

**No period → You might think that not getting your period is a pretty reliable indication that you are pregnant, but that is not a first sign, because many women does not have regular periods. And some women do not notice the day that they are supposed to have.*

Tests

As soon as you think you are pregnant take a test so you'll have enough time to think about what you want to do, have an abortion or keep the pregnancy.

When you are pregnant a special hormone called HCG is released into your urine which indicates whether or not you are pregnant.

, April 22,2002

You can also get a pelvic exam. The doctor will know if you are pregnant or not by feeling and looking at your uterus. They can also tell about how far you are pregnant.

If you are pregnant, your cervix, which is usually pink or red, will look bluish.

The pregnancy test might cost from \$7 to \$20 and you can find it at any pharmacy.

Risks

Teenage mothers have a higher chance of anemia. Babies are more likely to be born premature. Premature babies are born earlier than the full nine months. These babies are more likely to have birth defects and suffer from low birth weight. These children can also have the possibility of having mental retardation, brain damage, and damage at birth they also have a greater chance of getting infections after birth. The younger the mother, the greater the risk of complications for both the mother and her child.

Some women become depressed and women who become suicidal because they are so sad that they can't even think of what to do when they are in a situation like this. .

April 22, 2002

Eating

It is important for pregnant women to stay healthy by eating right. Not only will they feel better, but also their babies will be healthier. The growing fetus gets its nutrients directly from the mother. Pregnancy is not the time to go on a diet. In fact, pregnant women should expect to gain some weight. The appropriate amount of weight gain is usually about twenty-five pounds, depending on the mother's needs.

The key is to increase your food eating in a nutritious, healthy way. Select more food from milk and dairy groups of extra calcium, and be sure to get lots of protein from meats, poultry, fish, eggs, and nuts. Plenty of fresh fruit and vegetables will provide essential vitamins. Six to eight glasses of water a day is ideal. Avoid fast food, snack foods, and candy which are high in fat, sugar, and cholesterol and relatively low in nutrients.

April 22,2002

Getting Ready for A New Born

Once you choose to raise the baby, you will have many things to prepare. Your baby will need a crib to sleep in for the first few years. The crib will need sheets, blankets, and liner.

You'll also need baby supplies such as soaps, creams, powders, lotions, nipples, bottles and diapers.

You will also have to choose how you want to feed your baby. There are basically two choices: breast-feeding and bottle-feeding.

You'll need a lot more utensils after the baby is born.

Conclusion

I learned from this research project the following things

- ◆ *48% of teens around the age of 18 get pregnant each year.*
- ◆ *In some states abortion is not allowed without parents consent.*
- ◆ *When a women is pregnant a special hormone called HCG is released into her urine, which indicates whether or not if the women is pregnant.*
- ◆ *Teenager's babies are more likely to be born premature.*
- ◆ *In Mississippi and other rural areas, its normal to give birth when you are teen, because almost everybody does it.*
- ◆ *A condom with spermicidal gel protects 97% of the times against pregnancy, but many women are allergic to it.*
- ◆ *The father has the right to have the name on the baby's certificate although the mother does not want.*
- ◆ *That is some school program to help teens pregnant that want to still go to school.*
- ◆ *In the USA 30% of teens pregnant decide to abortion each year.*
- ◆ *In the USA 56% of teens pregnant decide to have the baby each year.*
- ◆ *In the USA 14% of teens have miscarriages each year./*

April 26, 2002

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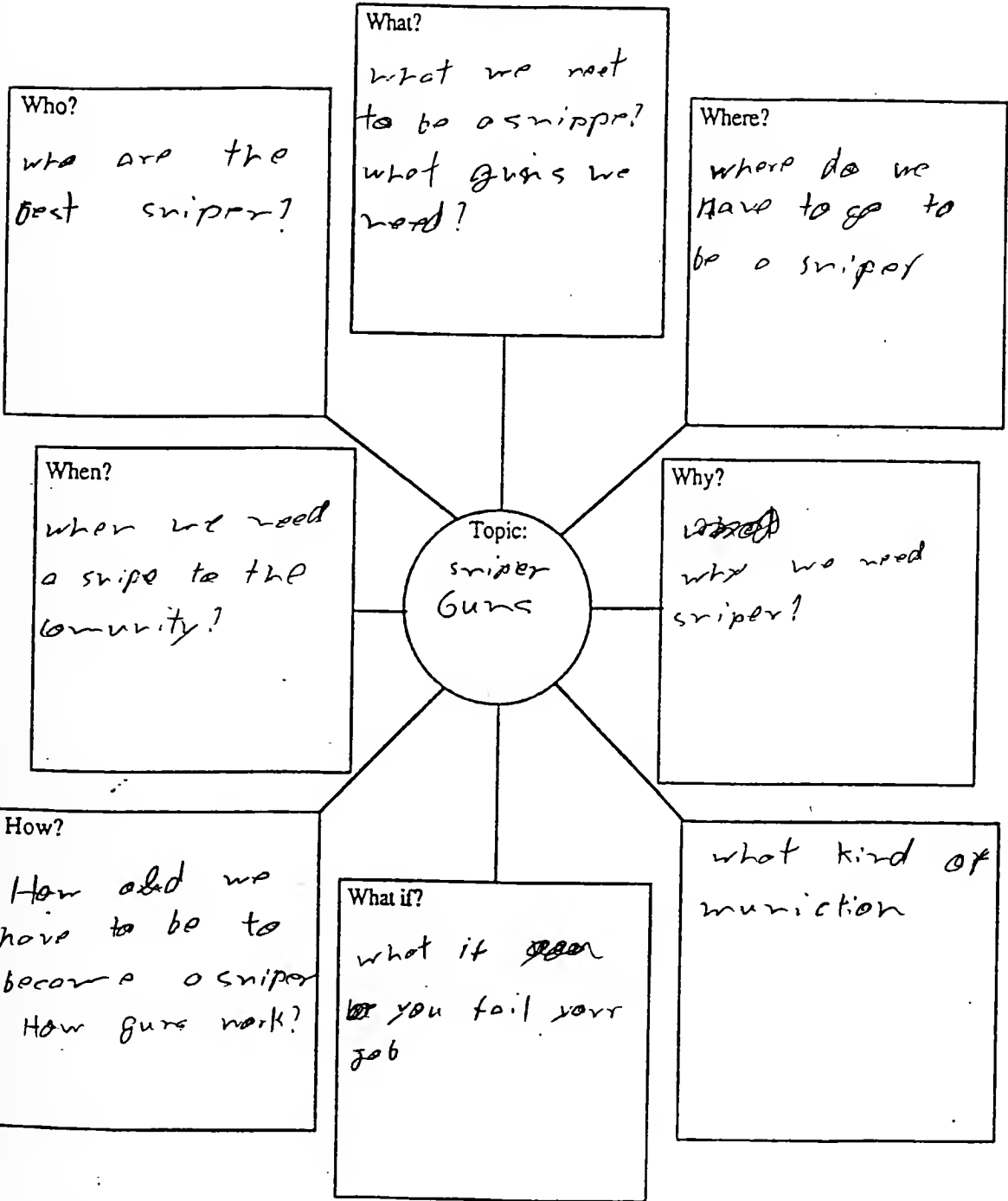
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MARIO

10-21-01

TOPIC DEVELOPER

Mario

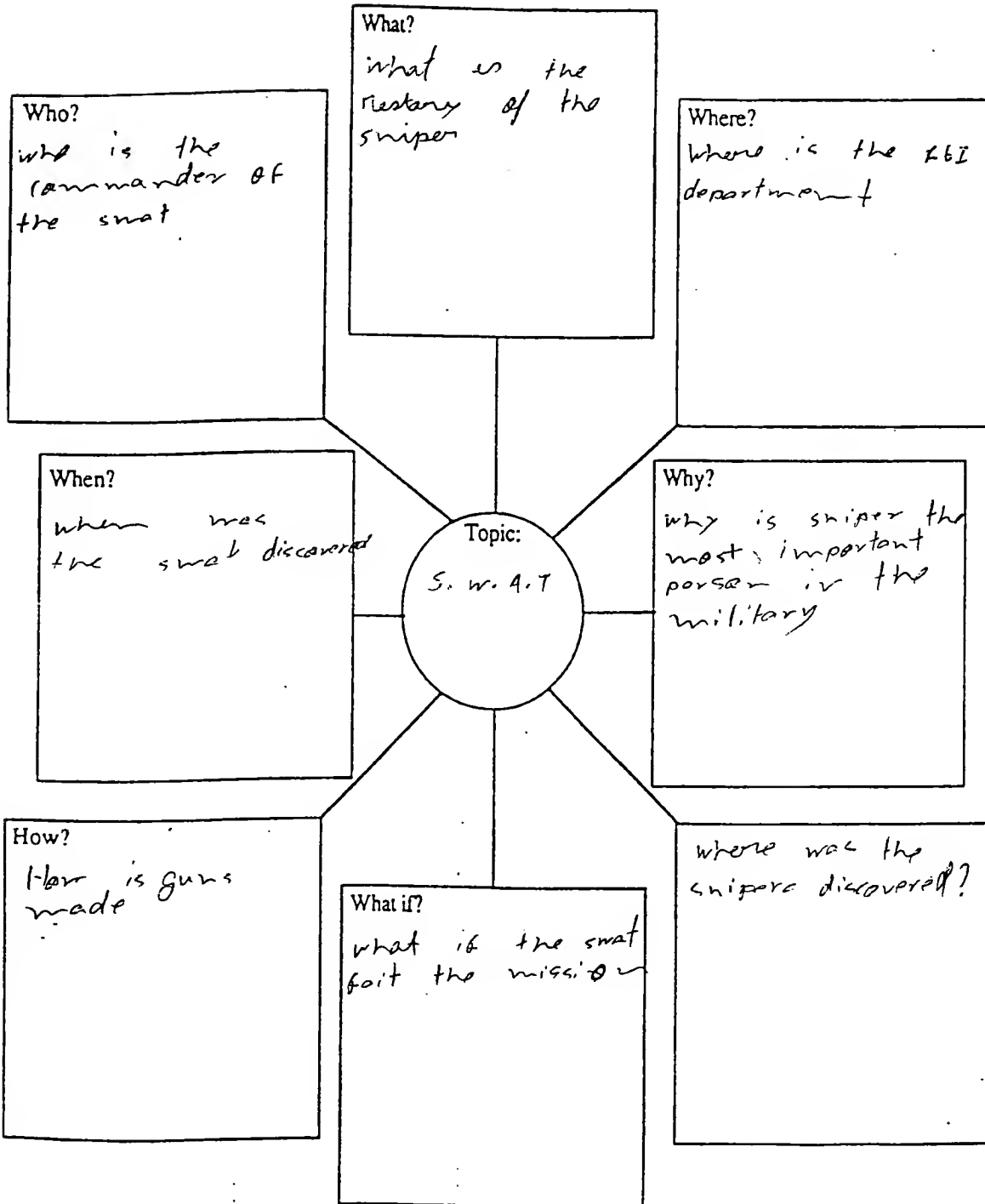




TOPIC DEVELOPER

1-7-02

1-7-02





Note taking Samples

parts of rifle 11-13-01

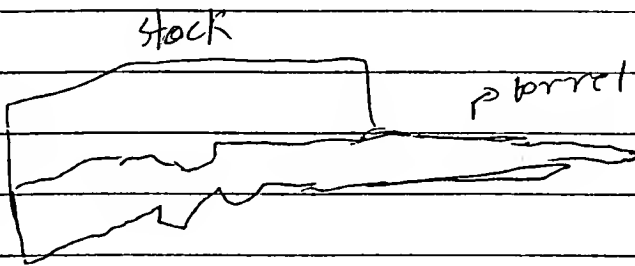
barrel → the tube in the rifle it makes the bullet spin

stock - ~~rest~~ makes the rifle stay steady

cartridges → where the bullet is

magazine → tube of bullet

sights → help you aim next you gonna shoot





12-3-01

FBI

Laboratory - the largest and most comprehensive forensic laboratory in the world, it has more than 65 years.

History The (FBI) ~~was~~ Federal Bureau of Investigation has called (DOJ) United States Bureau of Investigation (ICTY) = international criminal Tribunal for the former ~~of~~ Yugoslavia
(FSRTC) = forensic science research and training center

the FBI exams more than one million cases per year

They follow the constitutional rigor
1974 FBI moved to Washington J. Edgar Hoover building, in 1981 the FSRTC was established at the FBI academy. they get a new methodology in forensic analysis, techniques.



12-4-01

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bomb squads
swat team

swat team

1-18-02

SWAT stands for Special Weapons And Tactics Teams or Special Weapons Attack Team and CIRT (critical incident response team) and ESU (emergency service unit) they all have the same missions. They're special police department unit that rescue hostages, stop snipers, or prevent assassinations for example, when the

1986 centennial celebration of the Statue of Liberty was held in New York City more than 20,000 police officers were on duty to protect millions of visitors. Many of these officers were members of swat team or bomb squads.

The swat team members are experienced police officers who volunteer for this special team. Maturity, discipline and emotional strength are very important characteristics for swat team officers.

swat teams are often divided into three groups "shooters" are expert marksmen who can hit a target from a long distance

2-17-02

Outline

I - S.W.A.T

A - Definition

B - History

C - what kind of guns they use

D - Groups - 3

1 - Talkers

2 - slaters

3 - Entry team

II - F B I

A - History

B - Laboratory

C - detective

III - Guns

A - hand gun

B - shot gun

C - rifles

1 - Part of rifle

2 - what kind of bullet

"One Shot, One Kill, No Exceptions"

"Snipers"

Draft 1

The purpose of this paper is to explore career choices for my future. I chose this topic because I want to be a sniper so I decided to learn about it, and I like to live on the edge. The more I study about it, the more I want to be a sniper. I will look at S.W.A.T, snipers, and the FBI. First I will look at the FBI history, the FBI laboratory, and S.W.A.T team including the talkers, shooters, the entry team, and the history. And after that I will talk about guns

which includes Rifles, Handguns and Shotguns.

Mario,

Are you still going to write about The FBI? ~~The~~ If not, change your Introduction!!

You have a lot of good info, but now you need to follow my suggestions for revisions + all of snipers needs to go in your own words.

Mrs. Berra (Smiley)

S.W.A.T

Did you
fix the
changes here
that I
gave you
last
time??
==

In 1964 there ~~was~~^{were} a lot of bank robberies in Philadelphia, so the Philadelphia police department made a new group with one-hundred - ~~men~~^e that ~~was~~^{ere} a specialist in tactics squad and weapons. The purpose of this new unit ~~to~~^{was} react quickly and divisively to bank robberies ~~when~~^{when} they were in progress, by using a large number of trained officers that had a great amount of firepower. That tactic worked.

After the success of the Philadelphia SWAT team there ~~was~~^{were} other SWAT teams created. ~~Most~~^{were} of them ~~was~~ in the LA police department. This team got a lot of names like (CIRT) critical incident response team, and (ESU) emergency services unit, but this was the name that stays, Special Weapons Attack team.

IN 1986 the SWAT team had more than 20,000 officers on duty. ~~The~~^{where?} SWAT team members are experienced officers who volunteer for this special team. Maturity, discipline and emotional strength are very important characteristics for SWAT team officers.

The SWAT team is divided ~~in~~^{to} three groups, ~~the~~^o shooters, talkers, and the entry team. The shooters are expert marksmen, who can hit a target from a long distance. ~~They~~^{if} are called ~~when~~^{when} snipers or hostage takers have gained control of an area and are threatening the lives of innocent people, so they are called to take the guy down. The Talkers, ~~the~~^{name} ~~name~~^{name} says it all have good communication skills. They try to talk down a person who wants to kill ~~them~~^{him} self, and kill other people. And the entry team, this group

is usually made of four or five officers. They normally are divided in two groups named by color. "These officers are the gustiest group". *what does this mean??*

When first the SWAT team was made in 1964 they used the guns that they got from the robbers, because the robbers had the best guns, but now they use shotguns, rifles, machine guns, and gas bombs. The SWAT team training is simple. They do special weapons training, communication training, and tactics training.

(Bomb Squads, Swat Team, —)

What is your source?

Cite it here!!

Snipers

First Draft

Now put it into your own words.

Ms Beause

What is your source of information? You need to cite it after

During the fall and winter of 1861-1862 one of the most popular attractions in the Nation's Capital was the instructional camp of the first and second United States Sharpshooters. Private citizens, political dignitaries, even the President himself made a journey to the camp, for here was gathered some of finest young marksmen from the northern states. In addition to ~~of~~ endless hours spent drilling and pulling guard duty, the new large crowds of camp visitors for whom target shooting was a popular sport.

The concept of recruiting marksmen into organized regiments was promoted by a wealthy inventor named Hiram Berdan, himself one of the best known sport shooters in the nation. Berdan ~~lent his considerable influence to the project~~ ^{spread his knowledge to and he} was appointed colonel for his efforts, ~~and~~ ^{he} assumed command over the two regiments, which came to be popularly known as Berdan's Sharpshooters.

Originally armed with five-shot colt revolving rifles, the two regiments left camp of instruction in March of 1862. The first regiment distinguished itself during the siege of Yorktown and the peninsular campaign. It was at Yorktown that the reputation of Berdan's Sharpshooters ~~grew to near mythic proportions~~ ^{became a legend.} In addition to actual ~~facts~~ ^{events} of marksmen, particularly ⁱⁿ picking off Rebel ~~commanders~~ ^{leaders}, the Sharpshooters attracted numerous news ~~correspondents~~ ^{reporters}, some of whose ~~lurid prose and outlandish claims~~ ^{stories} captured the imagination of the country.

Adding to the glamour of Sharpshooters was the fact that they were dressed in forest green ~~frack~~ coats, trousers, and ~~frack~~ caps. To this were added brown leather

^{pants} ~~leggings~~ and ^{German-type} Prussian-type ^{back packs} ~~knapsacks~~ of hair-covered calfskin. Many ^{wore} ~~spotted~~ black ostrich ^{plumes} ~~feathers~~ in their caps, to ~~further enhance image~~. The green uniform, in addition to lending an elite air to the regiments, served an early form of camouflage for the fighting soldier. As the war progressed many of soldiers in the field ^{Threw away} ~~discarded~~ these distinctive ^{clothings} ~~trappings~~. However, the army continued to issue green clothing throughout the war.

The second U.S.S.S. spent the spring of 1862 performing ~~protest~~ guard duty in occupied Falmouth and Frederickburg, VA. ~~No doubt reading of the heroic exploits of their comrades in the first regiment with some envy.~~ Shortly after the ill-fated Peninsular campaign the two regiments reunited in time to participate in Pome's defeat at Second Bull Run and remained with the Army of the Potomac for the remainder of the war.

Snipers Missions

✓ ^Q ^{first} The ~~primary~~ mission of a sniper in combat is to support combat operations by delivering precise long-range fire on selected targets. By this, the sniper creates casualties among enemy troops, slows enemy movement, frightens enemy soldiers, lowers morale, and adds confusion to their operations.

~~range fire on selected targets. By this, the sniper creates casualties among enemy troops, slows~~

^Q The second ~~mission~~ mission of the sniper is collecting and reporting battlefield information. ~~A well-trained sniper, combined with the inherent accuracy of his rifle and ammunition, is a versatile supporting arm available to an infantry commander.~~ ^{will help the ~~army~~ infantry.} Simply the number of casualties he inflicts upon the enemy cannot measure the importance of the sniper. ~~Realization of the sniper's presence instills~~

~~fear in enemy troop elements~~ ^{makes them afraid} and influences their decisions and actions. A sniper ^{increases} enhances a unit's ~~firepower~~ ^{the means for} and augments the ~~varied means~~ for destruction and harassment of the enemy. ~~Whether a sniper is organic or attached, he will provide~~ that unit with extra supporting fire. The sniper's ^{unique} role is ~~unique in~~ that it is the ~~sole~~ ^{only} means by which a unit can engage point targets at distances beyond the effective range of an ordinary assault rifle. ^{mission} This role becomes more significant when the target is ~~entrenched or positioned~~ among civilians, or during riot control missions.

¶ The fires of automatic weapons in such operations can result in the wounding or killing of ^{civilians} ~~noncombatants~~. Snipers are employed in all levels of conflict. ~~This includes~~ ^{Snipers do both} ~~conventional~~ offensive and defensive combat in which precision fire is delivered at long ranges. It also includes combat patrols, ambushes, counter sniper operations, forward observation elements, military operations in ^{city} ~~urbanized~~ terrain, and ~~retrograde~~ operations in which snipers are part of forces left in contact or as stay-behind forces.

PERSONNEL SELECTION CRITERIA

→ Candidates for sniper training require careful ^{selection} ~~screening~~. Commanders must ^{look through} ~~screen~~ the individual's records for potential aptitude as a sniper. The rigorous training program and the increased personal risk in combat require high motivation and the ability to learn ^{many} ~~a variety of~~ skills. ^{People who want to become} ~~Aspiring~~ snipers must have an excellent personal record. * The basic guidelines used to screen sniper candidates are as follows:

(1) ~~Marksmanship~~ ^{Shooting Ability}. The sniper trainee must be an expert marksman. Repeated annual qualification, as expert is necessary. Successful participation in the annual



competition-in-arms program and ~~an extensive hunting background~~ ^{a lot of hunting experience} also indicate good sniper potential.

(2) Physical condition. The sniper, often employed in extended operations with little sleep, food, or water, must be in outstanding physical condition. Good health means better reflexes, better muscular control, and greater stamina. The self-confidence and control that come from athletics, especially team sports, are definite assets to a sniper trainee.

(3) Vision. Eyesight is the sniper's ~~prime tool~~ ^{most important quality}. Therefore, a sniper must have 20/20 vision or vision correctable to 20/20. However, wearing glasses could become a ~~liability~~ ^{problem} if glasses are lost or damaged. Color blindness is also considered a ~~liability~~ ^{problem} to the sniper, due to his inability to ~~detect~~ ^{find} concealed targets that blend in with the natural surroundings.

(4) Smoking. The sniper should not be a smoker or use smokeless tobacco. Smoke or an ~~unsuppressed~~ smoker's cough can betray the sniper's position. Even though a sniper may not smoke or use smokeless tobacco on a mission, his ~~refrainment~~ ^{stopping} may cause nervousness and irritation, which lowers his ~~efficiency~~ ^{skills}.

(5) Mental condition. When commanders ~~screen~~ ^{look through} sniper candidates, they should look for traits that indicate the candidate has the right qualities to be a sniper. The commander must determine if the candidate will pull the trigger at the right time and place. Some traits to look for are reliability, initiative, loyalty, discipline, and emotional stability. A psychological evaluation of the candidate can aid the commander in the selection process.

✓

(6) Intelligence. A sniper's duties require a wide variety of skills. He must learn the following: ~~Guns~~ ^{Weapons;} ~~Ballistics~~, Ammunition types and capabilities, ~~Adjustment of~~ ^{telescopic} optical devices, ~~Radio~~ operation and procedures, ~~Observation~~ and adjustment of mortar and artillery fire, ~~Land~~ navigation skills, ~~Military~~ intelligence collecting and reporting, ~~Identification~~ of threat uniforms and equipment. ~~In~~ In sniper team operations involving prolonged independent employment, the sniper must be self-reliant, display good judgment and common sense.

This requires two other important qualifications: emotional balance and field craft.

(1) Emotional balance. The sniper must be able to calmly and ~~deliberately~~ ^{intentionally} kill targets that may not pose an immediate threat to him. It is much easier to kill in

self-defense or in the defense of others than it is to kill without apparent provocation. The sniper must not be ~~susceptible~~ ^{easily ~~swayed~~ taken over by} to emotions such as anxiety or

~~remorse~~ ^{sadness} Candidates whose motivation toward sniper training rests mainly in the desire for ~~prestige~~ ^{fame} may not be capable of the cold ~~rationality~~ ^{reason} that the sniper's job requires.

(2) Field craft. The sniper must be familiar with and comfortable in a ~~field~~ ^{outdoor} field environment. An extensive background in the outdoors and knowledge of natural occurrences in the outdoors will ~~assist~~ ^{help} the sniper in many of his tasks. Individuals with such a background will often have great potential as a sniper.

SNIPER AND OBSERVER RESPONSIBILITIES

Each member of the sniper team has specific responsibilities. Only through repeated

1/29/07

Interviewing questions

1) what kind of missions do you go to?

2) what kind of guns do you use?

3) Did you have to kill someone, if you did, ^{how} did you feel?

4) Did you fail any mission? If you did any people die because of you?

5) what kind of place you like to hide?

6) Have you ever shot someone, where in the body?

7) For how long have you been a sniper?

8) what is your name?

9) ~~How~~ How old are you?

10) where do you work?

2-01-02

Interviewing questions

- 1) What kind of college do you go to?
How did it help you with your career?
swat team member
- 2) How do you get to be a swat team member?
- 3) Do you have to be a police academy first?
- 4) Who is the test you take to be a member swat member?
- 5) What group are you in? and what do you do?
- 6) Why did you want to be a swat team member?
- 7) What kind of weapons training you have to take?
- 8) What kind of special equipment you use?

"One shot, One Kill, No Exceptions"

SNIPERS

Mario
May 6, 2002
Research Class
Ms. Bearse and Ms. Hamilton

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"One Shot, One Kill, No Exceptions"

"Sniper"

The purpose of this paper is to explore career choices for my future. I chose this topic because I want to become a sniper so I decided to learn something about it, and I like to live on the edge. The more I study about it the more I want to be a sniper. On this paper I will talk about the SWAT team the three groups that is on the SWAT. And I will talk about sniper; the history of sniper in the USA, and then I will talk about the way that the sniper should move when they should move, and I will talk for those that want to become a sniper like me.

S.W.A.T

In 1964 there were a lot of bank robberies in Philadelphia, so the Philadelphia police department made a new group with one-hundred – men that are specialist in tactics squad and weapons. The purpose of this new unit was to react quickly and divisively to bank robberies when they were in progress, by using a large number of trained officers that had a great amount of firepower. That tactic worked.

After the success of the Philadelphia SWAT team there were other SWAT teams created. Most of them were in the LA police department. This team got a lot of names like (CIRT) critical incident response team, and (ESU) emergency services unit, but this was the name that stays, Special Weapons Attack team.

IN 1986 the SWAT team had more than 20,000 officers on duty in the USA. The SWAT team members are experienced officers who volunteer for this special team. Maturity, discipline and emotional strength are very important characteristics for SWAT team officers.

The SWAT team is divided into three groups: the shooters, talkers, and the entry team. The shooters are expert marksmen, who can hit a target from a long distance. They are called when snipers or hostage takers have gained control of an area and are threatening the lives of innocent people, so they are called to take the guy down. The Talkers, the name says it all, have good communication skills. They try to talk down a person who wants to kill him-self, and kill other people. And the entry team, this group is

usually made of four or five officers. They normally are divided in two groups named by color.

When first the SWAT team was made in 1964 they used the guns that they got from the robbers, because the robbers had the best guns, but now they use shotgun, rifles, automatic machine guns, sub-automatic machine guns, flare, and gas bombs. The SWAT team training is simple. They do special weapons training, communication training, and tactics training.

Snipers

During the fall and winter of 1861-1862 one of the most popular attractions in the Nation's Capital was the instructional camp of the first and second United States Sharpshooters. Private citizens, political dignitaries, even the President himself made a journey to the camp, for here was gathered some of the finest young marksmen from the northern states. In addition too endless hours spent drilling and pulling guard duty, the new large crowds of camp visitors for who target shooting was a popular sport.

The concept of recruiting marksmen into organized regiments was promoted by a wealthy inventor named Hiram Berdan, himself one of the best known sport shooters in the nation. Berdan spread his knowledge to the project and he was appointed colonel for his efforts. He assumed command over the two regiments, which came to be popularly known as Berdan's Sharpshooters.

Originally armed with five-shot colt revolving rifles, the two regiments left camp of instruction in March of 1862. The first regiment distinguished itself during the siege of Yorktown and the peninsular campaign. It was at Yorktown that the reputation of Berdan's Sharpshooters became a legend. In addition to actual events of marksmen, particularly in picking off Rebels, the Sharpshooters attracted numerous newspapermen, whose stories captured the imagination of the country.

Adding to the glamour of Sharpshooters was the fact that they were dressed in forest green coats, trousers, and caps. To this were added brown leather pants and German-type backpacks of hair-covered calfskin. Many wore black ostrich plumes in

theirs caps. The green uniform, in addition to lending an elite air to the regiments, served an early form of camouflage for the fighting soldier. As the war progressed many of soldiers in the field threw away these distinctive clothing. However, the army continued to issue green clothing throughout the war.

The second U.S.S.S. spent the spring of 1862 performing guard duty in occupied Falmouth and Frederickburg, VA.

Snipers Missions

The primary mission of a sniper in combat is to support combat operations by delivering precise long-range fire on selected targets. By this, the sniper creates casualties among enemy troops, slows enemy movement, frightens enemy soldiers, lowers morale, and adds confusion to their operations.

The secondary mission of the sniper is collecting and reporting battlefield information. a. A well-trained sniper combined with the inherent accuracy of his rifle and ammunitions. Will help the infantry. Simply the number of casualties he inflicts upon the enemy cannot measure the importance of the sniper. The sniper's presence makes the enemy troops afraid and influences their decisions and actions. A sniper increases the means for destruction and harassment of the enemy. A sniper provides that unit with extra supporting fire. The sniper's unique role is that it is the only means by which a unit can engage point targets at distances beyond the effective range of an ordinary assault rifle. This mission becomes more significant when the target is among civilians, or during riot control missions.

The fires of automatic weapons in such operations can result in the wounding or killing of noncombatants. Snipers are employed in all levels of conflict. This includes conventional offensive and defensive combat in which precision fire is delivered at long ranges. It also includes combat patrols, ambushes, counter sniper operations, forward observation elements, military operations in urbanized terrain, and retrograde operations in which snipers are part of forces left in contact or as stay-behind forces.

PERSONNEL SELECTION CRITERIA

Candidates for sniper training require careful selection. Commanders must look through the individual's records for potential aptitude as a sniper. The rigorous training program and the increased personal risk in combat require high motivation and the ability to learn many of skills. People who want to become sniper must have an excellent personal record the basic guidelines used to screen sniper candidates are as follows:

- (1) **Marksmanship.** (Shooting ability) The sniper trainee must be an expert marksman. Repeated annual qualification, as expert is necessary. Successful participation in the annual competition-in-arms program and a lot of hunting experience background also indicate good sniper potential.
- (2) **Physical condition.** The sniper, often employed in extended operations with little sleep, food, or water, must be in outstanding physical condition. Good health means better reflexes, better muscular control, and greater stamina. The self-confidence and control that come from athletics, especially team sports, are definite assets to a sniper trainee.

(3) **Vision.** Eyesight is the sniper's most important quality. Therefore, a sniper must have 20/20 vision or vision correctable to 20/20. However, wearing glasses could become a problem if glasses are lost or damaged. Color blindness is also considered a liability to the sniper, due to his inability to find concealed targets that blend in with the natural surroundings.

(4) **Smoking.** The sniper should not be a smoker or use smokeless tobacco. Smoke or an unsuppressed smoker's cough can betray the sniper's position. Even though a sniper may not smoke or use smokeless tobacco on a mission, his stopping may cause nervousness and irritation, which lowers his efficiency.

(5) **Mental condition.** When commanders look through sniper candidates, they should look for traits that indicate the candidate has the right qualities to be a sniper. The commander must determine if the candidate will pull the trigger at the right time and place. Some traits to look for are reliability, initiative, loyalty, discipline, and emotional stability. A psychological evaluation of the candidate can aid the commander in the selection process.

(6) **Intelligence.** A sniper's duties require a wide variety of skills. He must learn the following:

- Ballistics
- Weapons ammunition types and capabilities
- adjustment of telescopic devices, radio operation and procedures
- observation and adjustment of mortar and artillery fire
- land navigation skills
- military intelligence collecting and reporting

- Identification of threat uniforms and equipment.

In sniper team operations involving prolonged independent employment, the sniper must be self-reliant, display good judgment and common sense.

This requires two other important qualifications: emotional balance and field craft.

(1) **Emotional balance.** The sniper must be able to calmly and intentionally kill targets that may not pose an immediate threat to him. It is much easier to kill in self-defense or in the defense of others than it is to kill without apparent provocation. The sniper must not be easily taken over by emotions such as anxiety or sadness. Candidates whose motivation toward sniper training rests mainly in the desire for fame may not be capable of the cold reason that the sniper's job requires.

(2) **Field craft.** The sniper must be familiar with and comfortable in a field environment. An extensive background in the outdoors and knowledge of natural occurrences in the outdoors will help the sniper in many of his tasks. Individuals with such a background will often have great potential as a sniper.

SNIPER AND OBSERVER RESPONSIBILITIES

Each member of the sniper team has specific responsibilities. Only through repeated practice can the team begin to function properly. Responsibilities of team members areas follows:

a. **The sniper**— Builds a steady, comfortable position. Locates and identifies the designated target. Estimates the range to the target. Notifies the observer of readiness to fire. Takes aim at the designated target. Controls breathing at natural rate. Executes proper trigger control. Follows through. Makes an accurate and timely shot call. Prepares to fire subsequent shots, if necessary.

b. **The observer**— Properly positions himself. Selects an appropriate target. Assists in range estimation. Calculates the effect of existing weather conditions on shooting conditions. Reports sight adjustment data to the sniper. Uses the Critiques performance.

TEAM FIRING TECHNIQUES

A sniper team must be able to move and survive in a combat environment. The sniper team's mission is to deliver precision fire. This calls for a coordinated team effort.

Together, the sniper and observer:

- Determine the effects of weather on ballistics.
- Calculate the range to the target.
- Make necessary sight changes.
- Observe bullet impact.
- Critique performance before any subsequent shots.

FIELD TECHNIQUES

The primary mission of the sniper team is to eliminate selected enemy targets with long-range precision fire. How well the sniper accomplishes his mission depends on knowledge, understanding and application of various field techniques that allow him to move, hide, observe, and detect targets. This chapter discusses the field techniques and skills that the sniper must learn before employment in support of combat operations. The sniper's application of these skills will affect his survival on the battlefield.

CAMOUFLAGE

Camouflage is one of the basic weapons of war. It can mean the difference between a successful or unsuccessful mission. To the sniper team, it can mean the difference

between life and death. Camouflage measures are important since the team cannot afford to be detected at any time while moving alone, as part of another element, or while operating from a firing position. Marksmanship training teaches the sniper to hit a target, and knowledge of camouflage teaches him how to avoid becoming a target. Paying attention to camouflage fundamentals is a mark of a well-trained sniper.

TARGET INDICATORS

To become proficient in camouflage, the sniper team must first understand target indicators. Target indicators are anything a soldier does or fails to do that could result in detection. A sniper team must know and understand target indication not only to move undetected, but also to detect enemy movement. Target indicators are sound, movement, improper camouflage, disturbance of wildlife, and odors.

a. **Sound.** Most noticeable during hours of darkness. Caused by movement, equipment rattling, or talking. Small noises may be dismissed as natural, but talking will not.

b. **Movement.** Most noticeable during hours of daylight. The human eye is attracted to movement. Quick or jerky movement will be detected faster than slow movement.

c. **Improper camouflage.** Shine. Outline. Contrast with the background.

d. **Disturbance of wildlife.** Birds suddenly were flying away. Sudden stop of animal

noises. Animals were being frightened.

e. **Odors.** Cooking. Smoking. Soap and lotions. Insect repellents.

MOVEMENT

A sniper team's mission and method of employment differ in many ways from those of the infantry squad. One of the most noticeable differences is the movement technique used by the sniper team. Movement by teams must not be detected or even suspected by the enemy. Because of this, a sniper team must master individual sniper movement techniques.

RULES OF MOVEMENT

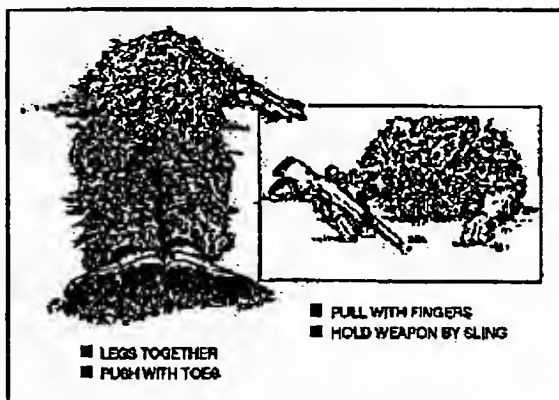
When moving, the sniper team should always remember the following rules

- a. Always assumes the area is under enemy observation.
- b. Move slowly. A sniper counts his movement progress by feet and inches.
- c. Do not cause overhead movement of trees, bushes, or tall grasses by rubbing against them.
- d. Plan every movement and move in segments of the route at a time.
- e. Stop, look, and listen often. Move during disturbances such as gunfire, explosions, aircraft noise, wind, or anything that will distract the enemy's attention or conceal the team's movement.

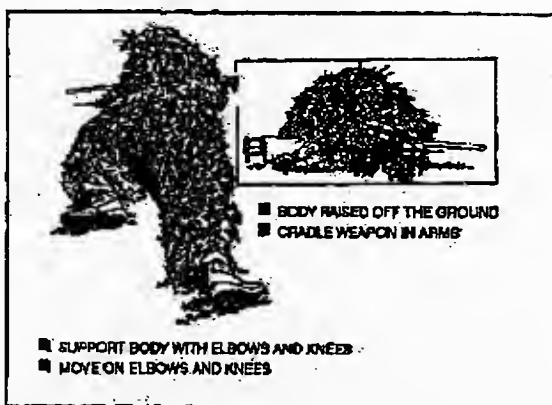
INDIVIDUAL MOVEMENT TECHNIQUES

The individual movement techniques used by the sniper team are designed to allow movement without being detected. These movement techniques are sniper low crawl, medium crawl, high crawl, hand-and-knees crawl, and walking. As shown on the pictures below:

- a. **Sniper Low Crawl.** The sniper low crawl is used when concealment is extremely limited, when close to the enemy, or when occupying a firing position.

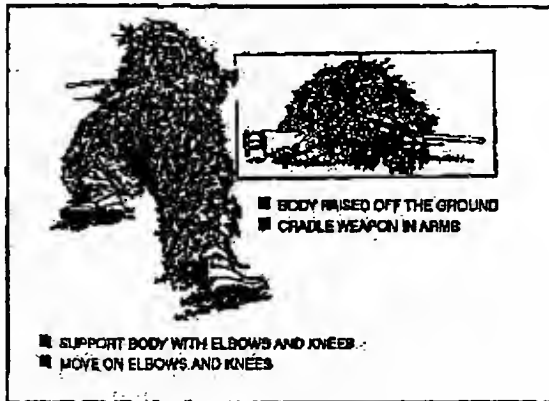


- b. **Medium Crawl.** The medium crawl is used when concealment is limited and the team needs to move faster than the sniper low crawl allows. The medium crawl is similar to the infantryman's low crawl.





c. **High Crawl.** The high crawl is used when concealment is limited but high enough to allow the sniper to raise his body off the ground. The high crawl is similar to the infantry high crawl.

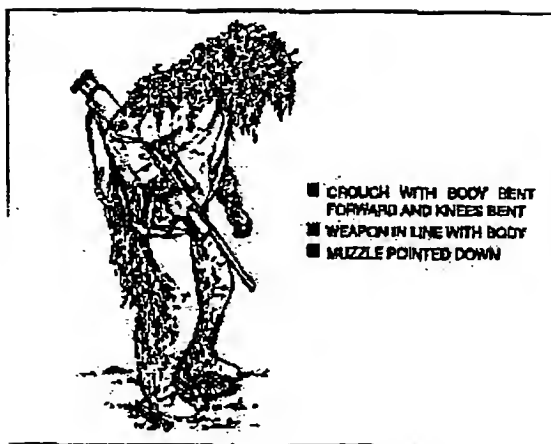


d. **Hand-and-knees Crawl.** The hand-and-knees crawl is used when some concealment is available and the sniper team needs to. Move faster than the medium crawl.



e. **Walking.** Walking is used when there is good concealment, it is not likely the enemy is close, and speed is required.





Conclusion

On my yearlong project I learned so many things about the S.W.A.T and Sniper like.

- The first SWAT team was in 1964
- The SWAT have three teams
- The kind of guns that they used and what kind of gun they use
- What kind of training they do in the SWAT
- The history of sniper in the USA
- What kind of mission the snipers go to
- If you want to become a sniper what you should do
- Sniper and observer responsibility
- Team firing technique
- Field technique
- Camouflage
- Target indicator
- The way that the sniper should move
- The rules of the movement
- Individual movement techniques



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